

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For JULY, 1792.

Rinaldo, a Poem; in Twelve Books: translated from the Italian of Torquato Tasso. By John Hoole. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Doddsley. 1792.

EXtravagantly wild as this poem is, for the author disclaims all pretensions to probability, and indulges in the discordant dreams of an over-heated imagination, yet it exhibits frequent marks of a bold vigorous mind, and discloses the dawn of those beams whose effulgence appeared so glorious in the *Jerusalem Delivered*. In this, his first performance, Tasso proposed to form himself on the model of the ancients, yet his manners are more consonant to those of the ROMANZAT-ORI, whose example he disavows. The story is too eccentric to follow, we mean as to the events; for in itself it is not irregular, but carries on a connected narrative of different adventures that befel the hero in the course of his peregrinations, previous to his union with Clarice: of course, the events here supposed to have occurred are previous to those narrated in the *Orlando Furioso*, wherein mention is made of Rinaldo as a married man. It should be observed, that this adventurous knight is not the same whom Tasso chose for his hero in the *Jerusalem Delivered*; but one of those famous Paladins of France, of romantic memory, whose marvellous exploits, exhibited in the brilliant colouring of Ariosto, will live to future times, whilst those of many heroes, who once stood most conspicuous on the stage of human life, are swallowed up in the gulph of oblivion, quia carent vate sacro!

The exploits recorded are no less strange and romantic than those celebrated by the preceding bard. Whether they were taken from some ancient romance, or invented by Tasso himself, we cannot pretend to determine. The names and characters of several principal actors in this performance are evidently borrowed; and we meet with many of Don Quixote's old acquaintances; a circumstance that not a little recommends its perusal. It affords, indeed, some curious illustrations of Cervantes' inimitable performance. The gigantic Mambrino, the treacherous Gano, the sage Alquife,

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and others of the same ideal race, who have acquired a kind of gratuitous existence, and which but for the knight was in no little danger of extinction, are here brought before our view. But those characters have no marked discriminating lineaments; there is no intricacy of design to awake our curiosity, or excite our apprehensions. We find, indeed, enough of the wonderful, and a supernatural interposition is always to be met with in cases of emergency. The knot of intrigue, if not easily unravelled, is cut through, and 'dignus, aut non dignus vindice, deus interfit.' We cannot therefore be deeply interested about events whose termination is easily foreseen. The hero fights his way straight forward, a few episodes excepted, till we come to the end of the twelfth book, and then, of course, marries the heroine. The number of these books might have been enlarged or diminished without any detriment to the story, as a great part of the incidents are not connected with, or dependent on one another. It was probably fixed on by Tasso's partiality to Virgil, whom he appears to have copied with no less attention in this poem, than in his other more celebrated epic. The following passages, among many others, may be considered rather as translations than imitations; others might be produced.

'An oak, whose root as far beneath was spread,
As o'er the plain he rais'd his ancient head.'

'Æsculus——quæ quantum vertice ad auras
Æthereas, tantum radice in Tartara tendit.' *Geor.* ii. 291.

'Soon busy Fame with rapid pinion speeds,
And bears from clime to clime his glorious deeds:
From small beginning greater bulk she gains,
And every hour increasing strength attains;
Yet, mingling truth with lies, still changing shows
A different form, nor rest nor slumber knows.'

'Fama, malum quo non aliud velocius ullum:
Mobilitate viget, viresque acquirit eundo.
Parva metu primo; mox sese attollit in auras—
Tam ficti pravique tenax, quam nuncia veri.' *Æn.* iv. 174.

'But o'er the rest a dame superior rose,
Like Dian whom her virgin nymphs enclose,
What time the choir in sprightly dances led,
On Cynthus' top she moves with stately tread.
She gives her golden locks to sport in air,
The quiver, stor'd with shafts, her shoulders bear:
Latona fees, and scarce her heart contains
A mother's joy that trickles thro' her veins.'

'Qualis

‘Qualis in Eurotæ ripis, aut per juga Cynthi
Exercet Diana choros, quam mille secutæ
Hinc atque hinc glomerantur Oreades: illa pharetram
Fert humero, gradienſque deas ſupereminet omnes:
Latonæ tacitum pertentant gaudia pectus.’ *Æn.* i. 502.

This lady, who, like Dido in Virgil, is compared, ſome-
what improperly, to Diana, falls in love, like her, with the
wandering hero of the poem, and is alſo forſaken by him.
To point out all the particular paſſages in which Virgil
has been copied would ſwell our quotations to too great a
length. Even the philoſophical ſong of Iopas, not very hap-
pily introduced at the feaſt of the Carthaginian queen, is inju-
diciously copied by the bard of Floriana.

Taſſo appears likewiſe to be well read in Ovid. The ſtory
of Niobe, painted on the mantle of Florindo *, is taken almoſt
literally from the ſixth book of the *Metamorphoſis*: and the
Epiſode of the Knight of the Tomb † and Clytia is borrowed
from the ſeventh book of the ſame poem. Some pleaſantly
romantic incidents are added to it, and the ſcenery of the
Mournful Wood is happily delineated.

The Greek poets were not much ſtudied in Taſſo’s time, but
he appears to have been well acquainted with them. A ſimilar
paſſage to that in which Rinaldo is compared to a horſe ‡,
which cannot be reſtrained by the curb, by interpoſing rocks
and torrents, is to be found in the concluſion of the ſixth
Iliad, though probably, like ſome others, taken at ſecond
hand from § Virgil: but the following is, we believe, only to
be traced back to Homer.

‘Here on theſe plains ſhalt thou neglected lie,
No parents near to meet thy ſwimming eye;
Nor they, who long ere this in death reſoſe,
With pious hands thy heavy lids ſhall cloſe;
While beat by ſtorms, thy members here decay,
To ravenous wolves and hungry dogs a prey.’

— ὅ μιν σοὶ γέ πατρὸς καὶ ποτνίᾳ μητρὸς
Ὅσσι καθαίρῃσουσι θανόντι περ, ἀλλ’ οἰωνοὶ
Ὀμῆται σ’ ἐρυσῃσι, περὶ πτερὰ πυκνὰ βαλόντες. *Il.* xi. 452.

The deſcription of the Iſle of Pleaſure, in the Weſtern
Ocean, is perfectly conſonant to the poetical mythology of
Greece.

‘An iſle there lies amidſt the breezy main,
Beyond the bounds that mariners reſtrain,

* B. viii. 125.
§ *Æn.* xi. 492.

† B. vii. 195.

‡ B. i. 199.

Alcides' bounds, where ships with danger ride,
 And Calpe's mountain parts the roaring tide.
 In this abode, this far-sequester'd seat,
 Where peace and gladness holds their blest retreat,
 Where frolic pastime sports, where all unite
 To form a smiling region of delight,
 'Tis said that Jove the mansion has assign'd
 For heroes, once the pride of human-kind;
 When worn with labour, or with years oppress'd,
 Their souls releas'd aspire to endless rest—
 No further cares, no evils here annoy,
 Each, near approaching, feels the general joy:
 For gifts like these the wondrous region fam'd,
 Is hence by all the Isle of Pleasure nam'd.'

Homer describes the regions inhabited by happy spirits in a very similar, though superior, manner in the *Odyssey* (book iv. l. 564.), and Hesiod places the heroes of the fourth age in a situation of the same kind:

‘Εν μακάρων νησοῖσι παρ Ὀκεανὸν βαθυδίνην.’ *Egy.* 170.

The following lines bear a striking resemblance to the conclusion of Sappho's celebrated ode.

‘Ah me! when first she met my dazzled view,
 Through all my frame a chilling tremor flew:
 Pallid and cold, with pain I drew my breath,
 And life seem'd fluttering on the verge of death.’

Καὶ δ' ἰδὼς ψυχρὸς χεῖρ, τρόμος δὲ
 Πασαν αἰεὶ· χλωροτέρῃ δὲ ποῖας
 Ἐμὲ τεθναταὶ δ' ὀλίγη δειοῖσα

φαίνομαι ἀπνῆς·

Mr. Hoole notices several passages in this poem, which Tasso amplified or imitated afterwards, in his *Jerusalem Delivered*. He might likewise have added, that not only the hero's name in that poem, but his most characteristic features, are adopted from this. Each warrior is presented with armour not framed by mortal hands. The Rinaldo of that poem is always fearless and invincible; so is this: that Rinaldo is obliged to quit the Christian camp for killing Gernando, who had basely calumniated him; this Rinaldo is exiled by Charlemain, for putting to death Anselmo, who had traduced his mother's honour. That Rinaldo is seduced from the paths of military glory by the blandishments of Armida, this by the charms of Floriana. The parallel might be extended farther, and tend to prove that Tasso scrupled as little to copy from himself as from the classics.—Mr. Hoole justly observes,

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‘ ——— that there can be little doubt, but the poem of Rinaldo was, as well as the Jerusalem, known to our inimitable Spenser. It is more than probable that the strong painting of the valley of despair, in the present juvenile poem, furnished the English poet with those hints which he has so wonderfully worked up in the story of the red cross knight.’

This passage will serve as a farther specimen of the poem, which affords, notwithstanding its faults, many capital designs in the bold Gothic style of painting.

‘ Rinaldo thence a different track pursu’d,
Uncertain where, and while in heaven he view’d
Eight times Aurora from her tresses shed
The morning dew and tinge the clouds with red,
The warrior rov’d: at length when Phœbus’ ray
Had brought on earth the ninth revolving ray,
A straight and level path his steed convey’d
To reach a valley black with dreary shade.
There sat a shape, that seem’d of human kind,
On his sad arm his drooping head reclin’d.
Squalid his mien; tears trickled from his eyes
With upward gaze directed to the skies;
While from his lips, in chill affliction’s tone,
He breath’d the loud complaint and mingled groan.

‘ Soon as the knight approach’d this mournful vale,
He felt increasing pangs his heart assail:
Such pangs he never till that day confess’d,
Such pangs as all his vital powers oppress’d.
Onward he pass’d, and silent still pursu’d
The guiding path, till nearer now he view’d
This child of woe; and, as he gaz’d, he drew
Infectious grief, that deep and deeper grew.

‘ Between two hills conceal’d the valley lies,
Two hills that intercept the cheering skies
With horrid gloom, where scarce a joyless ray
Through lazy vapours gives a doubtful day,
Such as we see ere yet reviving light
Restores the colour’d tints obscur’d by night.
The earth around displays a baleful scene,
With plants and herbage of funereal green:
There trees, of forms unknown to mortal eye,
From sable leaves envenom’d juice supply,
Where black ill-omen’d birds securely rest,
And build, in odious flocks, their frequent nest;
These, each to each, in shrieks their wants impart,
In shrieks that pierce the shuddering hearer’s heart.’

Of Mr. Hoole's skill in the Italian nothing need be said; but in this, as in some of his other translations, it will be thought that his spirit is not always equal to his fidelity.

Poems chiefly by Gentlemen of Devonshire and Cornwall. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Robinsons. 1792.

POEMS by different authors are in general no less miscellaneous in their merit, than in the subjects on which they are written: and every work of the kind affords the critic, if he finds leisure and inclination for the purpose, an opportunity to compare, contrast, and ascertain the different claims of each respective writer to the wreath of literary fame. But the Editor here stands forward to check us in such an undertaking. 'Nothing, he observes, is more obvious than to compare one author with another, but such a decision is not always satisfactory.' Certainly not to the person whose writings are condemned. 'An *invidious comparison*, the critic will doubtless avoid; though he *need not scrupulously balance his applauses.*' This permission is extremely obliging! 'The greater number of the authors of these poems rejoice in being friends—superior to every mean competition; who are truly interested in each other's success.'—But if any of these gentlemen are too fore to be touched by a critical probe, why lay themselves open to its incision?

———— poteras tutior esse domi.

Some have guarded themselves against the severity of animadversion by merely permitting an initial letter, or letters, to be prefixed to their compositions. This resembles the cautious mode of fighting in armour, which, though it cannot elude the stroke of an adversary, blunts the edge of his weapon, and causes the wearer to be less sensible of the violence of the blow. Others more intrepid have subjoined their names, and braved the field, in open defiance to all critical assailants. They have, indeed, but little cause for any apprehension, being, in general, well known to the literary world, and respected by it.

A very pleasing lyric composition of the late Mr. Badcock opens the collection. Poems of this kind, chiefly in the dithyrambic, desultory measure, are most considerable in quantity, and, on the whole, in point of merit in the collection: nor will the reader be surprised when informed that Dr. Downman, Mr. Hole, Mr. Polwhele, and Mr. Warwick*, are the

* We have more than once noticed with approbation some poems of this gentleman, though the Editor observes that 'by a strange fatality they have been little regarded.' He informs us that he is now no more; and gives the following just critique on his Odes in this collection. 'They are, says he, it must be owned, often obscure; but this is owing to an abruptness which is never forced or affected. They are fiery; they are enthusiastic.'

principal contributors. Two very elegant odes by Mr. John Bampfylde, likewise, command our approbation. Neither ought we to omit a very classical performance of this kind, bearing the signature of G. and addressed to Fancy; nor another very spirited performance, entitled the Rapt Bard, by Mr. Drewe. His Ode to Discord, likewise, contains both poetry and humour, but we are sometimes at a loss to find out its drift and tendency; and inclined to exclaim with Ferdinand in the Tempest,

‘ This is no mortal business, nor no sound
That the earth owns!’ —

As a specimen of these Poems we shall lay before the reader the former part of Mr. Hole’s Ode to Terror; the transcription of the whole would encroach too much upon our limits. It will be sufficient to add, that the remainder is equally descriptive of an agitated mind labouring under the apprehension of fear-created evils.

‘ Around me night and silence reign — my beating
breast
Seems with some huge weight oppress’d,
And strives to shake it off in vain.
Oh, let me close my orbs of sight,
And in my bosom check the panting breath!
Encircled by the shades of night,
Let me here unnotic’d rest!
And yet, as if the hand of death
Lay heavy on me, moisture cold bedews
My shivering limbs: and fancy views
Scenes of unknown terrors rise.
Advancing footsteps strike my ear;
Low-murmurs in the forest sound:
The rustling leaves are strew’d around.
Reluctant, yet compell’d by fear,
I ope my anxious eyes.
Now wildly through the extended plain,
With the moon’s mild light array’d,
I gaze—yet all dismay’d,
Would fain, but dare not close their lids again,
See through the path in yonder grove,
Silent and slow a phantom move!
Pale grief is on his brow impress’d,
And darkly down his snow-white vest
From his gor’d bosom sanguine streams descend,
He stops, he turns, on me he bends his view,
His course unknown he waves me to pursue—
Oh, let me hence my tottering footsteps bend!

Alas! in vain I seek to fly,
 My powerless limbs their aid deny;
 And fear, that gave the spectre birth,
 Rivets me motionless to earth.

Let me shake off this causeless dread:
 Let me my fortitude resume!
 In vain—for at this awful hour,
 Bursting the carments of the tomb,
 Ascend the spirits of the dead,
 And roam thro' night compell'd by magic's wond'rous
 power,

This is the time, when o'er the corse
 Festering in death, with accents hoarse
 The raven croaks, or beats with ominous wings
 The murderer's window—at the sound
 Trembling he starts, he glares around,
 And feels the thrilling pangs of guilt's infix'd stings.

This is the time, waiting their destin'd prey,
 And shunning day's detecting eye,
 In covert hid unpitying ruffians lie.
 To his lov'd home the traveller bends his way,
 That home he never more shall view!
 At once up starts the savage crew;
 By earthly fiends inclos'd he stands:
 For mercy at their feet he bends;
 He lifts his pleading eyes;
 In anguish clasps his hands;
 Conjures them by his dear domestic ties—
 But lo! the ruthless sword descends:
 Cold in his breast he feels
 The deadly point: he feebly reels,
 Forth bursts the vital stream, he gasps, he dies.
 Hark, loudly-echoing through the glade,
 Shrieks of distress my ears invade:
 Nearer and nearer rolls the sound—
 Like thee, poor wretch, 'twill soon be mine,
 This transient being to resign:
 I feel, I feel the life-bereaving wound.
 My soul within me sinks dismay'd!
 My pity, hapless man! was thine,
 But oh, I could not, durst not give thee aid!

It is to be observed that the Odes in the first volume are, in general, preferable to those contained in the second. In some of them we are often amused, as Hamlet says, with 'words, words, words,' instead of matter, or bewildered by too laboured

boured an arrangement of them. Yet there is scarcely any among these Odes but what contains some passages either sublime or beautiful. Of the latter kind is that of Mr. Polwhele on the Susceptibility of the Poetical Mind; it is marked by elegance and feeling. The opening lines will particularly strike every reader of taste and sensibility.

'Tis not for vulgar souls to feel
Those sacred sympathies refin'd,
That o'er the Poet's bosom steal,
When nature, to his glowing mind,
Each varied form, each colour gives,
Where rich the bloom of beauty lives.

For him yon' smooth and swelling green
In contrast with the craggy steep,
Hath charms, by common eyes unseen,
As o'er the lawn with shadowy sweep
That oak's luxuriant foliage flows,
And to the summer-sunbeam glows.

His fancy-roving eye perceives
New pleasure in the lucid stream,
That to the rose's opening leaves
Reflects a crimson-tinctur'd gleam;
And wanders down the daisied vale
To the tall aspin, quivering-pale.

For him yon fawns in many a maze
The splendor of the morning court;
Or group'd, enjoy the genial blaze,
As satiate of their frolic sport;
And, with a charm unfelt by few,
The setting glory still pursue.

He sees some faery power illume
The orient hills with richer light,
Chasing the mist's disparted gloom:
He sees, upon the mountain-height,
Some faery power the pencil hold
To paint the evening-cloud with gold.

There, as the deep and stilly shade
On night's pale bosom seems to rest,
And from the glimmering azure fade
The last cool tints that streak the west;
He heaves—though others wonder why—
He cherishes the pensive sigh.'

Mr. Polwhele's imitation of Ossian, which is one of
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the Elegiac Pieces, likewise deserves much praise; but among the poems of this kind none appears superior, in our estimation, to that written by miss Hunt, on the ruins of Dunkerwell Abbey in Devonshire. The Pastoral Pieces are but few in number, and consist chiefly of burlesques on those of Shenstone, by Mr. Drewe. We believe there are few readers but will admire the humour, though they may not approve the justice of the ridicule: of which we shall subjoin a short specimen.

‘ My beds are all furnish’d with fleas,
Whose bitings invite me to scratch;
Well stock’d are my orchards with jays,
And my pig-sties white over with thatch.

I seldom a pimple have met,
Such health does magnesia bestow;
My horse-pond is border’d with wet,
Where the flap-docks and sting-nettles grow.

I have found out a gift for my fair,
In my Cheshire some rotten I’ve found;
But let me the plunder forbear,
Nor give that dear bosom a wound:

Though oft from her lips I have heard,
That the rotten her palate would please;
Yet he ne’er could be true, she averr’d,
Who would rob the poor mite of his cheese.’

The Heroic Pieces, Epistles, Songs, Epitaphs, and Theatrical Addresses, are, in general, not obnoxious to censure, nor intitled to much praise. But the Sonnets, which are very numerous, are commonly executed in a peculiarly happy manner. The principal contributors to this line of composition are Mr. Bampfylde, Mr. Emmet, Mr. Polwhele, Mr. Sweet, and Mr. Warwick. Without meaning any invidious comparison, we shall take the liberty to observe, that we meet with no sonnets superior to those of Mr. Bampfylde, in this collection, or indeed in any other late publication. With one of them, written in a country retirement, though we are at some loss where to make the selection, we shall conclude our article.

‘ Around my porch and lonely casement spread,
The myrtle never sere, and gadding vine,
With fragrant sweet-brier love to interwine;
And in my garden’s box-incircled bed
The pansie pied, and musk rose white and red;
The pink, the lily chaste, and sweet woodbine,
Fling odours round; thick-woven eglantine

Decks

Decks my trim fence ; in which, by silence led,
 The wren hath wisely built her mossy cell,
 Shelter'd from storms, in courtly land so rife,
 And nestles o'er her young, and warbles well.
 'Tis here with innocence in peaceful glen
 I pass my blameless moments far from men,
 Nor wishing death too soon, nor asking life.'

Cumberland's Calvary. (Concluded from p. 132.)

IN the trial and condemnation of Christ, which is contained in the fifth book, Mr. Cumberland, with propriety, strictly adheres to the narrative given by the Evangelists, whom he invokes with much solemnity. Then follows,

' Musing my pious theme, as fits a bard
 Far onward in the wint'ry track of age,
 I shun the Muses haunts, nor dalliance hold
 With Fancy by the way, but travel on
 My mournful road, a pilgrim grey with years ;
 One that finds *little favour with the world*,
 Yet thankful for it's least benevolence
 And *patient of its taunts* ; for never yet
 Lur'd I the popu'lar ear with gibing tales,
 Or sacrific'd the modesty of song,
 Harping lewd madrigals at drunken feasts
 To make the vulgar sport and win their shout.
 Me rather the still voice delights, the praise
 Whisper'd, not publish'd by Fame's braying trump :
 Be thou my hearld, Nature ! Let me please
 The sacred few, let my remembrance live
 Embosom'd by the virtuous and the wise ;
 Make me, O Heav'n ! by those, who love thee, lov'd :
 So when the widow's and the children's tears
 Shall sprinkle the cold dust, in which I sleep
 Pompless and from a scornful world withdrawn,
 The laurel, *which it's malice rent*, shall shoot
 So water'd into life, and mantling throw
 It's verdant honours o'er my grassy tomb.'

We admire the author's piety ; but is he not too querulous concerning the ill usage he has experienced : as, in his pilgrimage through life no man is exempt from faults, nor free from enemies, *who* has reason to expect it in his literary career ? Mr. Cumberland has commonly met with deserved approbation ; but universal, unqualified applause, he has no right to expect. His writings, like those of others, possess different degrees of merit, and are often unequal in them.

themselves. Captious or unfriendly persons may have exaggerated blemishes, or treated, we may allow, even faultless passages with unmerited ridicule. To adjust the balance, will not friendship, on the other hand, be often too kindly partial in its judgment, and prepossession fancy beauties that may have no existence in reality?—The world at large will judge with candour, and those who look with pleasure on Mr. Cumberland's happy passages, are liable to no blame from him for not being blind to his defects.—The diction of this book is less elevated than that of several others, and its poetical beauties less striking. How, indeed, can the pathos of this interesting scene, as described in evangelical simplicity, be heightened by the embellishments of poetry? Several just and proper reflections are, however, interspersed; but we must not pass, unnoticed, some faults which occur. The style not only frequently wants elevation, but sometimes approaches to vulgarity. Caiaphas acquaints the Sanhedrim that

— 'Christ is seiz'd,
The Prophet whom they dreaded is *in bold.*'

Again,

'If yet the sepulchre had power to keep
Its crucified possessor safe *in bold.*'

And again,

'Take of the guiltless blood what stripes can draw,
To *satisfy your longing.*'

The phrase an 'immur'd Divan,' for a council assembled in the hall, savours of affectation.—'He shall stand at bar.' Why not *the* bar?

Pilate is described as unwilling to condemn Christ;

'Some *sparks* of Roman virtue, not quite dead,
Tho' faintly felt in his degenerate breast,
Revolted from the dead.'

Pilate might revolt; but it borders on the absurd and obscure to say, that 'the sparks which he felt, revolted.' Caiaphas is said to look with 'an eye *inquisitorial*;' and he styles himself in another place, 'the servant of servants,' an appellation assumed of old by the Roman pontiff. We have no objection to his being compared to an inquisitor or a pope; but such affected humility is not consonant to the character of a Jewish high-priest.

The sixth book opens with a pathetic address to the Jews in consequence of their dreadful imprecation, 'his blood be upon us, and upon our children!' The effects of our Saviour's voice on Judas, standing unnoticed at a distance, is well-imagined,

'There

' There was a magic sweetness in his voice,
 A note that seem'd to shiver every nerve
 Entwin'd about his heart, though now corrupt,
 Debas'd and harden'd. Ill could he abide,
 Murderer although he were, the dying tones
 Of him, whom he had murder'd: 'twas the voice
 As of a spirit in the air by night
 Heard in the meditation of some crime,
 Or sleep-created in the troubled ear
 Of conscience, crying out, Beware! It smote
 Upon the soul, for it was Christ who spake,
 Well then might Judas tremble.'

But we cannot approve such lines as these.

' His cheeks with blows *sufflated*, and his face,
 Oh, piteous! with blaspheming *flaver* stain'd.'

These words, one obsolete, and one vulgar, debase a passage in the Gospel from whence the description is taken, most strikingly pathetic: and the verbose paraphrase that ensues is much inferior to the concise and affecting simplicity with which the Evangelists describe our Saviour's crucifixion, and the events subsequent to it. Where we have not the sacred original to compare with the copy, Mr. Cumberland again rises upon us. The supposed dialogue between Judas and Mammon is well conducted, and the bitter taunts of the fiend highly characteristic. The sounding of the Satanic trump, the spirits at the call 'swift-posting on the charmed winds,' and their sudden dispersion into different parts of the world, are circumstances happily imagined and well expressed.

In the seventh book, which is entitled, Christ's descent into hell, Mr. Cumberland gives full scope to his fancy, and carries us, '*ultra flagrantia mœnia mundi*,' through the boundless regions of space to the gloomy abode of Death, where 'no sunbeam ever reached.' 'The unhoused spirit of Christ, borne on the wing of mightiest cherubims,' approaches its confines. The sufferings of the wicked are described.

' These when th' all-present spirit of Christ descried
 At distance tossing in the sulph'rous lake,
 And heard their dismal groans, the conscious sense
 Of human weakness by experience earn'd
 In his own mortal body now put off,
 And *recollection* that himself of late
 In his sublunar pilgrimage had prov'd,
 Temptations like to their's, drew from his soul
 A sigh of nat'ral pity, as from man
 To man although in merited distress:

But

But when his human sympathy gave place
 To judgment better weigh'd and riper thoughts
 Congenial with the Godhead reassum'd,
 The justice of their doom, th' abhorrence due
 To their vile deeds by voluntary act
 Of will, left free, committed in despight
 Of conscience moving them to better thoughts,
 Turn'd him indignant from the loathed sight
 Of these impenitents.'

The assignment of sensations to our Redeemer, which he is here supposed to have felt, or motives on which he is supposed to act, as occurs in other places, seems rather too bold and presuming. We neither charge nor suspect Mr. Cumberland of designed presumption or irreverence, and he has the example of Milton to allege in his vindication; but we must confess that even Milton has sometimes struck us with a kind of religious horror, when developing the counsels of the Almighty, which we must suppose are neither comprehended by men nor angels. Compared to Milton Mr. Cumberland is extremely cautious. Ideal beings, earthly and infernal agents, seem allowable subjects for the poet's *quidlibet audendi*; and we object not, though the scene is extremely terrible, to the description of Satan, 'now driven through regions of eternal frost, now scorched by fires, his proud form shattered by the whirlwind's blast, and precipitated, the wreck of arch-angelic majesty, before the gloomy threshold of death.'

'Scar'd at the hideous crash, and all aghast,
 Death scream'd amain, then wrapt himself in clouds,
 And in his dark pavilion trembling fate
 Mantled in night. And now the prostrate fiend
 Rear'd his terrific head with lightnings scorch'd,
 And furrow'd deep with scars of livid hue;
 Then stood erect and roll'd his blood-shot eyes
 To find the ghastly vision of grim Death,
 Who at the sudden downfall of his fire
 Startled, and of his own destruction warn'd,
 Had shrunk from sight, and to a misty cloud
 Dissolv'd, hung lowring o'er his shrouded throne.'

Satan implores his aid in vain.

— 'a deep and hollow groan,
 Like roar of distant thunders, shook the hall,
 And from before the cloud-envelop'd throne
 The adamant pavement burst in twain
 With hideous crash self-open'd, and display'd
 A subterranean chasm, whose yawning vault,

Deep as the pit of Acheron, forbade
 All nearer access to the shado'wy king.
 Whereat the imprison'd winds, that in its womb
 Were cavern'd, 'gan to heave their yeasty waves
 In bubbling exhalations, till at once
 Their eddying vapors working upwards burst
 From the broad vent enfranchis'd, when, behold!
 The cloud that late around the throne had pour'd
 More than Egyptian darkness, now began
 To lift its fleecy skirts, till through the mist
 The imperial phantom gleam'd; monster deform'd,
 Enormous, terrible, from heel to scalp
 One dire anatomy; his giant bones
 Star'd through the shrivell'd skin, that loosely hung
 On his sepulchral carcase; round his brows
 A cypress wreath tiara-like he wore,
 With nightshade and cold hemlock interwin'd;
 Behind him hung his quiver'd store of darts
 Wing'd with the raven's plume; his fatal bow
 Of deadly yew, tall as Goliath's spear,
 Propp'd his unerring arm; about his throne,
 If throne it might be call'd, which was compos'd
 Of human bones, as in a charnel pil'd,
 A hideous group of dire diseases stood,
 Sorrows and pains and agonizing plagues,
 His ghastly satellites.' —

This forms but a small part of the hideous groupe. The remainder are delineated in the same bold colouring. The description is not, however, uniformly excellent. The 'cypresses wreath,' &c. is perhaps too finical, and the comparison of death's fatal bow to Goliath's spear gives a determinate idea of its size, which should have been left undeterminate. The 'murdering Rufs,' and 'barbarian caliphs,' were in embryo at the time of the crucifixion, and therefore should not have been introduced among the shadowy train of death. His speech to Saturn is quite in character: his voice sounds as if 'low-murmuring from the tombs,' and informs him,

— ' here no place hast thou,
 For here is peace; no part in this domain
 To thee and to thy rebel host belongs:
 They in the flames of Tartarus, but we
 Dwell with the silent worm.' —

The dialogue between them is admirable, and the triumphal appearance of Christ,

' Bright

• Bright as the sun his presence; darkness fled
Down to the center; Satan on the earth
Fell motionless; Death trembled on his throne,
And call'd his shadowy guards, they with loud shrieks
Vanish'd in air. —

Satan is hurled into the bottomless pit, and chained by the avenging angel: all this part is in the best manner of Dante, terrible and sublime. Death humbles himself before the Redeemer of mankind, tenders his crown to Christ, and lays the keys which sets free the souls of the saints, destined to be the partakers of the first resurrection, at his feet. We shall just notice a few passages in these last books that might have been more happily expressed. 'Spear'd to the heart' is a very singular phrase, and 'accursed *Deicides*,' i. e. the Jews, no less so. A strict unitarian would shudder at the idea, and not greatly approve of their being characterised as a 'stiff-neck'd generation.'

• Who spurn the yoke, and kick against their God.'

These lines are certainly not poetry; the question is, whether they are common sense?

• Joseph arrives; a counsellor was he,
But not for death, and rich and just *withal*.'

The spirits of the just releas'd from the dominion of death pay homage to their Saviour in a hymn of praise and thanksgiving. In this book, which concludes the poem, Scripture is sometimes strictly adhered to, sometimes its ideas are expanded, and some circumstances are introduced, but slightly, if at all countenanced by it. Of the latter sort are Abraham's intercession with our Saviour for mankind, though it must be admitted perfectly consonant to the character of the patriarch, 'through whom all nations of the earth shall be blessed;' as is likewise the dialogue between Gabriel and Moses, in which the former declares the purport of our Saviour's resurrection, and from the nature of man's free-will explains the origin and necessity of evil, deducing from thence the benefits of Christ's death and redemption. Liberties, of this kind, if allowable, may be allowed to such an author as Mr. Cumberland, who evidently writes under the influence of a religious frame of mind, and whose fancy, though bold and fervid, never hurries him into enthusiastic extravagance, or any gross and unbecoming ideas of the divine dispensations. The scrupulous reader, however, will be apt to think that he sometimes takes rather too great liberties, and improperly interweaves the dreams of fancy with those events through which the Saviour of the world was brought

to death, and the redemption of mankind effected. The less scrupulous, probably, will condemn him on the other hand for adhering too closely to the same expression used in Scripture, when he narrates events recorded in it, and by that means giving us many pages flat and unpoetical. Either charge might, we believe, in some degree be supported. Yet considering the difficulties he was to encounter, the Scylla and Charybdis through which he was to steer, he has extricated himself with admirable skill and success.

Our readers must not judge of the incidents of this poem, or of its different beauties, merely from those we have adverted to. A number of each, unnoticed by us will strike them on a careful perusal, and afford pleasure to the man of taste, the moralist and the Christian.

Foot's Treatise on the Lues Venerea. (Concluded from p. 14.)

THE nature and action of the venereal 'disease' it would have been more correct to have said venereal matter, is the subject of the fourth Lecture. But so much has been already advanced on these points, that ingenuity can scarcely afford the zest of novelty; and the most diligent research can add but little to the facts. Mr. Foot thinks, that the matter of syphilis and gonorrhœa is the same, and the difference of action, as well as of the slower progress of syphilitic symptoms, to be the result only of the infection being applied to different parts. This is a subject on which we have had occasion often to speak, without being able to decide. The danger, however, to which the patient will be exposed, if we err in our opinion, when we consider the diseases as different, and the comparative inconvenience resulting from the other system, an inconvenience scarcely amounting to more than a prudent precaution, make us little solicitous to determine. Mr. Foot is of opinion that the different æra at which the gonorrhœa was observed, depended more on the practitioners than on the operations of nature. They were acquainted with mucous and feminal discharges; there was nothing in these to fix their attention, while the other symptoms and the progress were new, surprising, and alarming. This is, however, wholly theoretical and fanciful, as well as his idea, that the matter of chancres will not affect other parts of the infected person. The 'galaxy of chancres' he might have often seen, had he attended patients in the lower stages of life.

The fifth Lecture is on the gonorrhœa, and the author thinks that the discharge is merely vitiated mucus; but is angry with Mr. Hunter for confining the seat of the disease to about an inch and half below the orifice of the urethra. He

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ought to be angry with nature; for Mr. Hunter is only her interpreter, and the fact has been often ascertained by dissection, though, in the progress of the disease, when not properly checked, every part of the urethra may suffer.

‘Although so much has been said upon the subject, merely as an answer to what has been advanced on the other side of the question, yet the true distinction, and all that ought to be regarded in order to point out the difference between pus and mucus, lies in a very small compass indeed, which is, that increased discharge of mucus can only be found to flow from the surface of mucous membranes and the glands thereof, without any solution of continuity, but barely as an increased secretion; whereas pus will be found on parts all over the body, where there is a destruction or solution of parts. This is the exact state of the case.’

We have transcribed this short paragraph, as a specimen of the style frequently employed through many pages. What does it say? Mucus is only the production of mucous follicles. Allowed. Again: pus is the effect of a solution and a destruction of the parts: negatur. If he wishes for a proof let him look at De Haen, who has shown that the pus will proceed from ulcerated surfaces, without a destruction of parts. We have seen many instances of the same kind; so that this ‘exact state of the case’ contains two propositions, the one trifling and identical, the other erroneous.

The chordee, the phymosis, and paraphymosis, are described with sufficient accuracy. The language, rather than the circumstances, are changed.

The swelled testicle is a subject of curiosity: we know it to be the effect of simple inflammation only, to come on when the discharge is suppressed, and to go off with the return of the gonorrhœa. Mr. Foot adds little more, and that little is exceptionable: the idea of the venereal virus reaching the vas deferens by capillary attraction, is idle and trifling; for the disease is cured by antiphlogistics only. Sympathy he properly discards; for it is a translation of simple inflammation, and a very singular instance of translation of local inflammation. The swelling of the testicle in the mumps, often when the fever is very nearly gone, is a similar instance, equally inexplicable.

The gonorrhœa of the eye is a singular circumstance. It is undoubtedly most often owing to local infection from inattention; but the disease described in the case was probably syphilitic. We remember an instance, which was decidedly so. It resisted every antiphlogistic method, and yielded to the internal use of mercury; unfortunately, too late to recover the

sight, which was destroyed by the incurable obstruction of the membranes.

In proceeding to consider the cure of gonorrhœa, he does not suppose mercury acts by a chemical power in changing the nature of the poison, but 'by producing a change in the constitution, by which the venereal stimulus is extinguished.' This is a jargon that eludes examination. From the general tenor of the facts, from the effects of mercurial injections, and particularly from the effects of the application of calomel to chancres, we think that mercury really acts as a chemical neutralizer. It is certain, however, that mercury is useless in gonorrhœa; nor can we perceive any advantage in giving the mercurius calcinatus in the dose of one grain, with a quarter, or half a grain of opium every night. If infection was in the habit, it would only delay its appearance: if it be not so, the medicine is useless. Our author's principal remedy is a dilute, cupreous solution, resembling the dissolved cuprum ammoniacale. It is made with much (we think useless) care; but of this remedy we have had no experience. The method of using it must be learned from the work; for, while Mr. Foot has acted with candour in giving the receipt, it would be unjust to render the communication too easy. Our author's method of distinguishing the remains of a discharge, capable of infecting, from a gleet, is just and rational.

Obstructions in the urethra form the next subject of consideration, and Mr. Foot is inclined to think them almost universally the effect of venereal inflammation. This opinion is chiefly aimed against Mr. Hunter's doctrine, with which through the whole of the work he is almost always at open war. We must allow that, except in a very few instances of obstructions, we think with Mr. Foot, and are of opinion that other inflammations, either as more temporary, or less peculiarly affecting the urethra, do not produce them. Their permanent nature often depends on a scrophulous disposition; which our author speaks of under the name of scorbutic. Spasm may undoubtedly produce the same effects, but spasm of the urethra, except from a permanent local irritation, is rare. Mr. Foot does not sufficiently advert, in his opposition to spasm, to the effects of a stone sticking in the urethra, or a bit of a fractured bougie. We may, indeed, admit that the difficulty which sometimes occurs to the passage of a bougie, compared with the facility with which it is at others introduced, is frequently owing to inflammation; but the inflammation, occasioning the enlargement of the caruncle, may bring on spasm, as well as a small calculus. An ulcer on the surface of the urethra is a more obvious cause of obstruction;

and, in this instance too, spasm may be occasionally suspected: our author's diagnosis, it may be added, between an ulcer in the bladder or in the urethra, is very just, though perhaps not sufficiently full to be always applicable.

The cure of these complaints Mr. Foot trusts to bougies and his favourite instrument, the catgut bougie, while he has drawn from the practitioners of the last century various opinions respecting the danger and inconvenience of caustics. Since the publication of Mr. Hunter's work, we have more often used caustics, and think, on the whole, that the inconveniences attending them are greater than their value; nor indeed, in our hands, have the catgut bougies been very advantageous. If they do not very soon pass, the moisture diminishes too much their resistance. The small bougies of the elastic gum seem greatly preferable; but dexterity acquired by use, may suggest to others different opinions, and we are not inclined to doubt their truth: we give only the result of our own observations. When inflammation comes on the bladder, a blister to the perinæum is a very useful application, and very unjustly reprobated by Mr. Foot. When it is necessary to perforate the bladder, which is only when the obstructing causes are removable, he seems to prefer the puncture above the pubes. The subject is concluded by twenty-five cases of obstructed urethras, some of which are curious and instructive.

Mr. Foot describes the appearance of chancres very minutely, but seems too secure, in some circumstances, of the fluid not infecting the constitution. There is every reason to think, that the constitution is always affected from a chancre; and if, almost immediately on its appearance, it be destroyed by a caustic, or even by the application of calomel, we have always followed it, by the exhibition of mercury, and have seen inconveniences arise from the omission. It is, in this chapter, that our author includes his account of the 'newly discovered fact relative to the venereal poison,' which he explains nearly in the same way as in his pamphlet on this subject.—The consideration of buboes follows, and Mr. Foot defends Astruc's account of absorption, seemingly because Mr. Hunter had said, that Astruc was not acquainted with the lymphatic system. In reality, that author's ideas, respecting the lymphatics, were equally vague and confused with those of his immediate cotemporaries. Long before his time, it was known, that fluids effused would be absorbed, but, in general, the office was attributed to the extremities of the red veins. The following distinctions of buboes from irritation, is very correct, but can scarcely be employed in practice, where it is
generally

generally judged proper to prevent these tumours from suppurating. It is sufficient, however, for our author's purpose, as his object is to describe the appearance and progress of venereal symptoms, uninfluenced by methods of cure.

‘Irritation does certainly, from many causes independent of venereal virus, tumify glands in connection with parts thus irritated; and glands will also feel the force of this influence in common, from the pain only of chancre, and from the pain only of gonorrhœa. But there is nothing so very excessive in the pain of a chancre, or in the pain of a gonorrhœa, considering it abstractedly from all relation to virus, as to provoke such uncommon inflammation in the inguinal glands, as to bring them to abscess, and sometimes in consequence become the seat of the most obstinate, the most continued, and the most dangerous effects that can be adduced by the action of venereal poison.

‘Glands which are affected from evident common causes of irritation, as evidently subside when the first cause is done away: this is the consequence of irritation on glands from common obvious causes. But glands inflamed by the absorption of virus from a chancre, grow more inflamed by the abatement of the original symptom which gave rise to the inflammation on them, at least the original chancre does not increase, as the inflammation increases on the glands, but it seems to be niggardly sparing that virus to the glands, which cannot be comprised within the limits of its own action. I therefore, for this reason, do not hesitate to pronounce, with the fewest of all possible exceptions, every bubo which comes to abscess, or that is with the greatest difficulty dissolved without coming to abscess, by a thorough decisive mercurial influence exerted upon it, to be truly venereal, to be truly possessed of the presence of, and under the immediate influence of venereal virus. In order, therefore, to clear my ground well as I go, I shall say that I take no farther notice of such buboes in the groins, which disappear spontaneously, when the irritating cause which provoked them so well abates; but that my object for consideration are buboes, which from venereal virus remain sometimes hard and uninflamed, or which come forward to abscess; such buboes which owe no relative obedience to any influence of any common stimulus independent of virus, which will remain progressively advancing; and such buboes which will become more and more formible, which will to all moral certainty impart the infection to the whole of the constitution, and which cannot be weaned from the constitution by any general mode of treatment appropriated to glands diseased from any other cause—these are the buboes which I am to define, and such only are produced by venereal infection.’

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We shall add the following fact without a comment. We have had no opportunity from experience of supporting it.

‘ I have one more remark to offer upon the subject of the lymphatic system, which is, that it is found to be more active in the young than the old — that when the subject is young, he is more exposed to buboes than when he is old — and that when the subject is youthful, these glands are more conspicuous than as he grows old — and that as the skin shrinks, and becomes loose, the lymphatics and the glands seem to have done their offices, and become in some degree obsolete.’

The lectures on the action of the venereal disease on the constitution are insufferably tedious, and contain, we think, some errors. One of these occurs early, where our author considers the general affection as likely to take place without any local ulcer or inflammation. When we say that this is probably an error, it is not with a design of drawing a patient into delusive security; for abrasions, which may give occasion to the admission of the poison, are so minute, chancres so inconsiderable and so little painful, that they have often passed unnoticed. We speak of it rather as a general fact, and contend that instances are so numerous, where, if the infection is not admitted by means of a wound, or by producing an ulcer, in consequence of remora or additional acquired virulence, the person exposed to it escapes unhurt, that the immediate consequences is in favour of its innocence, except in such circumstances. Another position of our author may be probably reprehensible in the general terms in which it is laid down, viz. that every particle of the fluids of an infected person are infected. This can be true only where the disease has made a considerable progress, or, perhaps, when the particle of the more generally circulating mass is confined in a part, subject from other causes, to inflammation and ulcer. The objections to Mr. Hunter's experiments on the effects of chancrous matter, we cannot easily render intelligible: some of them are acute and subtle; but the tenor of the whole depends too much on the ‘newly discovered fact,’ which we suspect should be styled the newly-entertained fancy.

Among the more general venereal symptoms, our author speaks first of eruptions on the skin and ulcers on the tonsils, which he contends occur after about three months; and, when he perceives them, he considers the infection as of that date. In this he may be correct, and we can only bring in opposition accounts from those whose interest it may be to deceive: we have, however, in some instances, been unable to detect the fallacy

fallacy of the assertions, which reduce the infection to a remoter origin, and we can suppose many circumstances to influence the appearance of the disease by delaying its progress, or checking it for a time altogether. One of these is the delay and irregularity of the period of the appearance of the local symptoms, which we rather mention, as the author, in this lecture, seems inclined not so rigorously to insist on what he had said of the disease appearing without any local symptoms (p. 507). The first general symptoms are well described, and, for obvious reasons, we shall select them.

‘ Prior to the appearance of cutaneous eruptions, from venereal infection, the patient feels an uncommon depression of spirits, and a languor that cannot be described. He feels erratic pains on every part of his body, and an aching pain in his cylindrical bones, darting through them from without inwards; and he feels also frequently a pain on the pericranium, as if it were bound tight upon the bones of the head. When these pains are not severe in the night, they generally cause restless tossing and inquietude. These seem to be very different from the excruciating and boring pains which attack cylindrical bones in long habitual venereal infection, and which constantly thicken the periosteum of them. The former pains may be said to be merely erratic, and to be confined entirely to the periosteum, the muscular, aponeurotic, and ligamentous surfaces. They are sometimes so slight as scarcely to excite a complaint about them, but at the severest, they are evidently milder than the other species. A languor and lassitude are not only experienced during the day, when the patient is up, but are more experienced in the morning after rising, the sleep which he had, and the bed on which he lay, affording him neither enjoyment nor refreshment. The fever which accompanies these symptoms is not of the inflammatory class; the pulse is quick, the tongue is streaky, the shoulders are sore, the small of the back is aching, and the patient evidently wastes.

‘ These symptoms preface ulcers on the tonsils, as well as eruptions on the skin. The more general and complete these eruptions follow, the more apparent is the remission of the pains, and the abatement of the other foregoing symptoms. The whole of the complexion of the skin will be found to be changed to a tawny hue. Plain spots appear, not protuberant, especially upon the breast, and upon both shoulders, of a red colour, purple, yellow, or livid; sometimes distinct, small, circular; sometimes broad, and spreading wide. They appear frequently in the hair, with a scab on the forehead and on the cheeks, dry, running, furfurose, and frequently like an herpes, and also deep and ulcerating through the true skin, making a large cavernous ulcer on the forehead, which is called a corona veneris. In the palms of

the hands and the soles of the feet, these eruptions will generate into clefts, which will become hard, callous, itching, and discharge a thin ichor, and the cuticle being loosened from the subjacent skin, separates from it in small pieces like scales. These spots will also deform the skin, with hard, callous, circular tubercles or pustules, not rising very high, ulcerating at the top, for the most part dry and without matter, but sometimes moist and running, scaly, furfurose, and yellow. They are common in the corners of the mouth, and on the alæ of the nose; and this sort is frequently found about the forehead, the temples, upon the hands, the wrists, and upon the thighs and the buttocks, and upon the loins; and sometimes they are dispersed all over the body.'

The other symptoms are correctly described; and it cannot be too often inculcated, that mercury may relieve the more obvious symptoms without radically curing the disease, and that the remedy should be continued long after these visible symptoms are removed. The disease proceeds at the same time through the softer and harder parts; but the virus is with much greater difficulty eliminated from the latter.

Mercury was very early applied in the venereal disease, at first externally, and chiefly from the analogy of other eruptions. At this time its use is sufficiently understood, and Mr. Foot's practice is simple, clear, and efficacious. The introduction to this part of his work is, as usual, much too diffuse, and too much time is spent on the difference of opinions respecting the quantity of mercury necessary to be employed. The theorist and practitioner are both in a certain degree right. The proportional quantity is less when the form is active; and, on the other hand, the remedy ought to be pushed so far as to show decisive effects on the constitution, and to be continued till the symptoms disappear; in our author's language, 'there must be a mercurial disease excited to cure the venereal.' The cure, he thinks, depends on the discharge, and chiefly on the salivation. In his directions for the management he properly insists on confinement and temperance; but he might have added, that the salivation and the confinement may be abridged, if the process be longer continued, and the situation of the patient make the allowance necessary. After going repeatedly through every preparation recommended, we can join with our author in thinking the external application of the ointment by inunction the best method.

The effects of mercury are described correctly; but Mr. Foot is inaccurate in his language, and, indeed, in his ideas, when he says, that the changes are clearly of a putrescent nature. They are the consequence only of a dissolved state of the blood by the evolution of its salts, in consequence of chemical

mical affinity. The following remarks we shall transcribe chiefly to recommend practitioners to attend to a subject as yet far from being well ascertained.

‘ In impoverished habits, we know that absorbents are sometimes rendered incapable of doing their office, in consequence of a long and symptomatic fever, such as is supported by the venereal stimulus. It may, without a stretch of reason, be presumed that their power may be impaired, if not totally suspended from that cause; and more especially, if the patient who is venereally infected be also in the constant habit of drinking spirituous liquors. These, I think, are causes why sometimes the largest proportion of mercury, applied in unction upon the surface, does not procure an apparent effect in any degree to the quantity applied. In such cases, and in such conditions, I have found this difficulty in the action of mercury most to prevail. It appears to me, that little out of the much which has been administered has been absorbed, and that little which has been absorbed, has not been equal to excite a mercurial stimulus, much less, therefore, has it been equal to excite a stimulus superior to the action of venereal stimulus. When this is the condition of the habit, the most remote absorbents, which are those that are dispersed upon the cutaneous surface, will of course, by being remote and more minute, feel the effect of such a temporary disability, of such a privation of action, in a greater degree than the larger absorbents—than those which are nearer to the central part of the animal machine: for, if the absorbents throughout the *prima via* were also thus equally debilitated, the constitution could not then be supported. In such instances, therefore, the internal application of mercury, either partially or wholly, has a preference.

‘ Whether it be prudent to attempt a continuance of mercury, in any form, in a constitution thus conditioned, and when such is the result of its application, that must depend upon the necessity and pressure of the occasion. If the symptoms of venereal virus be rapid, either locally or constitutionally—if there be no time to be lost—if there be an immediate necessity to put a stop to them, an endeavour must certainly be made, by every possible means, to excite a complete mercurial stimulus, as the only means for effecting that end. But I believe that, in many instances, the effort will be vain, and the end cannot be obtained: and I know, and I feel that such conditions are the most nice, dangerous, and intricate, of any which the disease and the remedy are exposed to.’

In the cure of chancres Mr. Foot fully agrees with the opinion, which we have in this article given, that, from the first moment of the appearance, there is no absolute safety but in a mercurial course. On this foundation he objects to excision
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and to caustics, and the force of his reasoning may be judged of from the following short extract.

‘ First, of excision. Where that is practicable, it must be done immediately upon the first discovery of the chancre, and the situation of the chancre must be favourable for the operation, for there are many parts exposed to chancres, where it would not be practicable; not to mention, that often there will be many chancres on different parts. If a chancre be situated under the frænum, it could not be conveniently cut out; or on the frænum, without dividing it; or on the glans, without the operation being severe; or behind the glans. But if the excision be put into practice, the virus might have previously escaped beyond that part; and as the object is too important for any doubt of certain security in the case, mercury would at the same time be given internally; and there would be a sore from the operation, which would require time for healing. Therefore, I look upon the method of excision to be something talked of, but which will never be in common practice.’

We shall state our opinion very shortly. Mr. Foot is certainly, in his general principle, correct; and it is perhaps right to leave the external sores as marks of the effects of the remedy, and the progress of the cure. But, on the other hand, expedience, the necessary secrecy, and various other causes may make a very different mode of conduct necessary and proper; so that the general rule should neither have been laid down so strictly, or pursued so rigorously. Another question here arises. While the complaint is local, the assimilation is constantly going on, and the system continually affected with fresh virus: by destroying the part, it seems that we check the fomes, and may greatly abridge the subsequent process. It is true that we have no index to guide us, but we now well know the mercurial state necessary to correct the different degrees of infection; and, when the blood is but slightly tainted, it will be only requisite to suffer the mercury to be continued long enough to exert its power on the different minute vessels, for a period to be regulated by its effects. Such is the plan that we have usually followed, and hitherto with advantage. We have generally employed the milder mercurial caustics, and, contrary to the opinion expressed by the author in a subsequent lecture, we are convinced that mercury has a real antisyphilitic power. In the malignant chancre, our author recommends the pulvis antimonialis to keep up perspiration, a method which he thinks proper in almost every circumstance of the disease; a fomentation of poppies, with one-third of the spirit of wine; and the dry lint, his usual dressing of chancre, to be moistened with spirit of wine at least twice a day; at the same time

time the mercurial course should be began, and the bath with opium, if sphacelation is likely to come on, given freely. Spirit of wine, he tells us, resists gangrene, checks inflammation, and collapses the vessels. This method, with his cupreous injection, he owes, we are informed, to the communications of Dr. Nooth.

On the subject of bubos Mr. Foot differs, as usual, from Mr. Hunter, and is consequently obliged to contend that mercury has no specific power of destroying the virus. The reasoning in the following passage, on the principles laid down, we must admit, at the same time observing, that we have never met with such an instance, or indeed any one, where the inflammation might not, with proper attention, be mitigated sufficiently to allow the use of mercury.

‘ The application of mercury, previous to a bubo coming to abscess, for an intention of dissolving it, demands a particular consideration from each particularity in the symptoms attendant upon the bubo. For if, from a certain idiosyncrasy the bubo inflame very rapidly, if the fever run high, if the pulse be extremely quick, and if the stimulus excited produce at night profuse perspiration, I do not think that is a favourable state for any fair promise of success in the action of mercury for dissolving such a bubo. The additional irritation which the mercurial stimulus will excite, the time which this stimulus will require for effectual action, the obstacles which it will meet in that action, from the venereal stimulus already in action, must terminate to the prejudice of the constitution of the patient, and of a cure of his bubo. For it must not be forgotten, that a regard should all along be paid to the condition of the patient. If a profuse application of mercury should, in this stage of the case, fail of the intention, and if the bubo (which is most probable that it will notwithstanding) should come to abscess, a foundation then is laid for future malignant symptoms, and for future doubts whether mercury will hereafter be necessary or not. The case will be protracted, and be made more dangerous and complex.

‘ When a bubo betrays signs of coming rapidly to abscess, and sooner than the action of mercury upon the constitution could take effect, we are assured that the fever will subside with the formation of matter—and when that is discharged, the mercurial process may fairly be began upon, the action of it can fairly be ascertained, and the effect in consequence will be fairly defined; less time will be lost to the patient in the cure, and no dread or doubt of necessary or unnecessary perseverance in mercury will be confounded in the question.’

If it is possible to discuss a bubo we consider it as the preferable

ferable measure; for, though we think the inflammatory obstruction of the gland, through which the lymphatic from the affected part passes, is a proof that the constitution is *not* affected, no one would be so imprudent as to trust his patient's health to an opinion only. If the bubo begins to suppurate, we *know*, that an early opening, when the matter appears in a dependent part, will greatly lessen the inflammation of the rest, make the process slower, and save both strength and pain for the patient. Mr. Foot recommends the complete maturation before the opening be made. Bad-conditioned bubos he supposes owing to the abuse of mercury, or the intemperate habits of the patient.

The general infection Mr. Foot meets with a mercurial plan, steady, decisive, and continued; and, if he would occasionally relax with circumstances, and follow the expedient, where the more strict rigour was not requisite, he would attain our unreserved commendation. His treatment of peculiar symptoms requires no remark.

On the whole, we cannot dismiss this work with applause. Mr. Foot's language is florid, vague, and diffuse; his opposition to Mr. Hunter pointed and personal; his own doctrines, the dictates frequently of prejudice, are defended with an indecent warmth. Amidst these errors, the accurate observer and the bold practitioner are occasionally conspicuous. Like many others, if Mr. Foot had not been an author, his professional fame would probably have remained unsullied.

Medical Commentaries for the Year 1791. Exhibiting a Concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy, collected and published by A. Duncan, M. D. F. R. and A. S. Ed. Decade Second. Vol. VI. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1792.

ACCIDENT alone has prevented us from paying the early respect to Dr. Duncan, which his merits have demanded; and which we have from many different motives with pleasure bestowed. In our annual returns to his labours, we have with freedom also given our opinion of his conduct, conscious that, while 'we set down nought in malice,' he would consider our animadversions as friendly hints, and our suggestions as the cautions of sincere well-wishers. We shall continue the same plan; and, as he has now assumed a more professed assistant in this undertaking, his son, we trust the work will receive an additional value, and rest on a more secure foundation. We shall, as usual, notice shortly those publications which may not have occurred in our own progress.

Dr.

Dr. Brevel's Dissertation published at Leipzig, 'on the nature and cure of the poison of rabid animals' is the first work analysed; and we must arraign, in some degree, Dr. Duncan's judgment in suffering it to occupy more than twenty pages of his work. The system is wholly gratuitous and trifling, unsupported by facts, at variance with philosophical chemistry in its improved state, in almost every step. The cure is equally insignificant and erroneous.

'The treatise on the Gravel and the Gout,' the substance of much disquisition in our Journals some years ago, follows; and by a little anachronism makes part of the '*latest* and most important discoveries.' We trust we may be permitted again to remind the ingenious author of his promise to elucidate by new experiments the nature of the concreting acid. We look for it impatiently, since nothing has yet been done by other chemists on this subject, since the publication of his second edition.

Sebastian Cera's Work, on the hospital fever, is next analyzed. It was printed almost twelve years since, and the third edition, with one new endemic added, appeared at Milan in 1788 or 1789. The fever is the synochus of Cullen, beginning with catarrhal symptoms. The endemic which this third edition now offers, differs only from the former in being attended with worms. It is peculiar to husbandmen, who work in the driest grounds, exposed to the meridian sun. M. Cera's work offers little that is interesting: the causes and the cure are almost equally fanciful and inefficacious.

M. Saalman's description of the contagious phrenitis and paraphrenitis which prevailed in Westphalia, during the spring and summer of 1788, is added. From the abridged account we find no reason for the names. The disease is certainly a malignant remittent, with occasional affections of the lungs. The delirium is merely that of the more malignant typhus. The practice is indiscriminately detailed, and affords little information. Blood-letting, for instance, and even the repetition of it, if necessary, are mentioned; but neither the symptoms, which indicate it, the effects, or those changes which point out the propriety of repeating it, occur: yet every practitioner knows, that the use of the lancet in putrid diseases requires the most minute examination.

The Journal de Medecine is a publication, whose general character is equivocal, and whose accounts must be received with caution. The observations on the inflammatory, bilious, fever followed in three instances by pemphigus, which appeared critical, by M. Salabart, seem, however, to be drawn up with judgment and accuracy. The disease was probably, in its nature,

ture, a remittent, though assuming a more apparently continued form. The medicines employed were chiefly cooling evacuants. The eruption, we strongly suspect, to have been accidental: the disease was the same, it had gone nearly through its usual stages, and the instances were but three. Even if we allow that the judicious practice employed, had prevented the eruption in some cases, yet, if the fever had been really exanthematous, the eruptions would probably have appeared more frequently.

The account of the tabasheer by Dr. Russell; that of the nardus Indica by Dr. Blane; of a child with a double head by Mr. Home; experiments on the matter of cancers and aerial fluids, extracted from animal substances by Dr. Crawford, occurring in the eightieth volume of the Philosophical Transactions; Mr. Coleman's dissertation on suspended respiration; Mr. Latham's observations on the effects of camphor applied externally in some cases of retention of urine; Mr. Pearson's observations on the use of opium in the venereal disease; and Dr. Adair's account of the medicinal properties of the muriated barytes, from the Medical Communications, we have already noticed in our Journal.

M. Carenus' 'observations de epidemica constitutione, anni 1789, in civico nosocomio Viennensi' contain many valuable facts; and we have not met with clearer, or more appropriated descriptions, with a more accurate enlightened practice, in any late author. The work itself, which since the receipt of the Commentaries we have seen, deserves particular attention. The first epidemic was a malignant, putrid catarrh, probably attended with ulcers in the trachea, followed by more general putrid fever. The cure consisted chiefly in keeping up perspiration. The second epidemic was a bilious remittent, degenerating into a more continued putrid fever. The description, the prognosis, and the observations on remedies, particularly on bleeding, the use of camphor and bark, are truly valuable. They seem the faithful dictates of experience, and we would recommend the work, or the very judicious and faithful abstract, in the volume before us, to the attention of our readers.

Mr. Vogle's medico-political disquisition on the causes, why so few persons, apparently drowned, are recovered, published at Hamburgh, is a judicious one. A successful case, where a person was recovered after having been apparently half an hour under water, is premised: the means were friction, with a careful inflation of the lungs, and venæsection was avoided. On this latter subject, he makes some judicious remarks, confining its utility to those cases where, from previous inebriety,

ety, marks of preceding apoplexy, or other causes, a particular fullness and turgescence of the brain are obvious. The following observations, though simple, cannot be too generally diffused.

‘ If, from the continuance of this simple method for the space of an hour or upwards, no sign of life can be detected, Dr. Vogel thinks, there is much reason to fear that the patient is in an irrecoverable state. Nay, he is even persuaded, that not a few will recover as effectually from being laid in a proper situation, duly covered, and gently rubbed with the hands of assistants alone, as they would do by the employment of more numerous practices: and, whatever be the practices employed, it is necessary, he tells us, attentively to watch the first returns of life; and when any signs of life appear, every mode of cure is, for a little at least, to be laid aside; lest, by officious labour, we should disturb the more salutary operations of nature. And he observes, “ *Gravis regula contra quam peccant optimi medici. Festina lente; aliquid naturæ committe, et illi confide si tempus adjuvet. Non plus mederi oportet, quam quantum vides medendum esse.*”

The last new work that occurs in this part of the volume is an academical lecture by D. D. Joseph Panilla Viscayno, on some more simple and useful ideas of fever. This view of the subject is, however, neither useful nor accurate; for he considers the changes in the pulse as forming the essence of fever, an idea not well founded, nor supported by facts.

The first essay, in the section of medical observation, is an account of the mineral waters in the Portuguese Island of St. Miguel, by Dr. Gourlay of Madeira. The heat of these springs is considerable: the impregnation generally hepatic air, and volatile vitriolic acid, with alum and clay. The cold springs and those of moderate heat, are impregnated with iron. The whole island is volcanic, and deserves more attention than our author was able to bestow on it. The waters are found to be useful in rheumatism and scrophula.

M. de Meza's description of the epidemic small pox at Helsingor in 1786 follows: it is in Latin, and should have been translated. The epidemic, however, is distinguished by no peculiarity of appearance and treatment. In one instance, a boy eat the crusts; and they produced a violent diarrhoea, which seemed very serviceable. Two boys, severely affected with a confluent small pox, from being ill-natured, obstinate, and passionate, became lively, obedient, and good-humoured. If the eruption was delayed beyond the fourth day, the warm bath was employed. Inoculation was sometimes performed by a needle, and the wound covered with an innocent plaister, sometimes

sometimes in the old way, by inserting a bit of infected thread.

Dr. James Clark of Dominica has communicated to Dr. Duncan an account of the good effects of the terra ponderosa muriata in a peculiar species of scrophula. The disease appears to be the pian of Africa, an ichorous putrid dissolution of swollen lymphatic glands; in which the remedy seemed effectual. Lizards have failed in this disease, and our author doubts the truth of the account of the effects of this disgusting remedy.

Dr. Garnet's history of a case of dropfy, cured by an infusion of tobacco, does not offer any particular subject of remark. Dr. Collingwood's case of syphilis was cured by the pulvis hydrargyri saccharatus, as many similar ones might be, though there is some reason to suspect that a few of the anomalous symptoms were occasioned by the patient's uneasiness, and it may even be questioned whether he really had the venereal disease.

Dr. Collingwood recommends the elm bark (*cort. ulmi interior*) in burns, erysipelatous, and other affections of the skin, used externally, in the form of an ointment; and diarrhœas, dysenteries, and weakness of the bowels, internally.

Dr. Wilson of Spalding communicates a case in which sixteen pounds, two ounces, of bloody water were drawn from the bladder; but the introduction of the catheter, he observes, was too long delayed: the patient sunk, probably from mortification, in consequence of the great, and long continued, distention.

The description of the *lusus naturæ* by Dr. Knox of Tortola is singular. We shall transcribe the principal parts of it.

'The external view exhibited an appearance, which, to one unacquainted with productions of this nature, was truly extraordinary. It had two heads, perfectly well formed, covered with very black hair, in greater quantity than is usual with infants at the time of birth. The features of the two faces were regular; they had an exact resemblance of each other; and, had it not been that the singular circumstance of a double head conveyed a horrid idea, the two faces might have been considered as pleasing ones. Behind the two heads, the first object which presented itself, was a double arm, formed by what may be considered as a junction of the left arm of one fœtus, with the right of the other. They were firmly united from the articulation at the shoulder to the elbow, but had each a distinct humeral bone, both of which were articulated to a concavity of the scapulæ, united so as to form the appearance of one shoulder. These arms, (or this double arm), were

extended and erect, so as to appear over the heads; and from the elbow to the extremities of the fingers, they were separate, distinct, and well formed. Two arms appeared, which were perfect in every respect. The breast was very broad, and a little indented in the middle; from thence downwards little difference was to be perceived in the figure of the parts, from those of a well-formed new-born infant. The lower extremities were single, and perfect in appearance; and there was a single funis.

• The appearances on dissection were not less extraordinary, than those exhibited on an external view. On removing the integuments, one sternum only was discovered, and which had no other uncommon appearance, than that it was much broader than usual, was indented in the middle, and wanted the xiphoid cartilage. It was articulated on each side by the intervention of the cartilages to the ribs, which were perfect in number, and sent off from two spines. These spines were separate and distinct from their origin at the neck, to their extremities, and did not terminate in any thing like an os sacrum or coccygis, both of which were entirely wanting.

• The sternum being removed, on the first view of the contents of the thorax, there seemed to be only the viscera of an individual; but, on opening the pericardium, which was single, it was found to contain two hearts, one of them of a proper form and size, having its auricles, ventricles, and vessels, in a perfect state; the other smaller and imperfect; its arterial vessels were small and contracted, and the left auricle and pulmonary vein were wanting. It was at first conceived, that the lungs consisted only of one pair, as each lobe had the pulmonary artery from a distinct heart; but, upon a further examination, two other lobes were discovered, situated under the first; they were small, compressed, and in a very imperfect state, and appeared to want the proper vessels.

The abdominal viscera were double, except that the ilia united at about one-third from the extremity. The bladder was single. Each trachea opened into a distinct lobe of the lungs, and each œsophagus opened into a distinct stomach.

The Histories of different Cases of Amputation, &c. by Mr. Rait of Dundee, afford little that is remarkable. In the first instance, where a schrophulous swelling of the joint of the knee had suppurated, the patient, though greatly reduced, recovered. Many such instances have been noticed.

Mr. Kellie's Account of a Rupture of the Abdominal Integuments, occasioned by a fall, and followed by a gangrene of the omentum, terminating favourably, is curious, and by no means incredible. By the violence of the fall the bowels came through between the fibres of the muscles. They were reduced, and, after some difficulty, stools were procured. In

the subsequent part, we suspect some little inaccuracy. About *three inches above the wound* a gangrene commenced, and a bluish vesicle formed. By proper medicines it separated, the bowels were exposed to view, and a portion of the omentum, in a mortified state, was cut off. It is a little singular that mortification should not come on in the *lacerated* part; and we believe peculiarly so, that a mortification should take place on a part not bruised, or that an internal partial mortification taking place, should point outward, producing *only* a mortification in the contiguous parts of the integuments.

Mr. Robertson of Kelfo gives the history of a cure of inguinal hernia by the operation, after mortification had seemed to come on, or was at least actually commencing. It serves to show that we never should despair, or decline offering the assistance in our power, though we may suppose our efforts useless.

Dr. Hamilton, the professor of midwifery, gives a very judicious and accurate account of a case of partially inverted uterus, where the midwife, suspecting the tumour to be the head of another child, produced a complete inversion of the uterus and vagina. The os uteri was contracted, and resisted the attempt to reduce it, which was constantly followed by fainting and convulsions. The tumour was consequently replaced within the os externum, confined by a pessary, and the patient almost miraculously recovered. Dr. Hamilton adds some excellent remarks on inverted uterus, and observes that, in a complete inversion, there is little uterine hæmorrhage, both from the stretching of the arteries, and the pressure of the contracting os tincæ. Too many efforts should not, he thinks, be made to reduce it, as they may render the event more certainly fatal: the best consequence to be obtained is from the partial reduction, practised in the case described. He adds good reasons for thinking, that in Dr. Denman's case, of which a plate is published, the uterus was only partially inverted.

Mr. Perry has communicated the history of a case of obstinate constipation, successfully treated by the use of quicksilver. The effects of the quicksilver are, however, equivocal; for, when inflammation begins to subside, and mortification is on the point of coming on, stools will sometimes spontaneously occur: the patient had also taken some violent cathartics, which could not be wholly changed at the time of the evacuation. What to say of the conclusion we know not: it was probably a fainting fit, for even wine and Cayenne pepper will not recover the dead.

The last original essay is by Dr. Lawson of Jamaica, containing an account of an obstinate swelling of the knee treated suc-

successfully. Amidst the number of medicines employed, it is difficult to ascertain the beneficial plan: it was perhaps cicuta with calomel, and the continued discharge of a blister.

It has not been our custom to disseminate medical news. Yet Dr. Duncan and Dr. Percival should certainly have suppressed the communication from Philadelphia, and not spoken of the 'successful employment of bark and wine in hydrophobia,' when no hydrophobia had appeared, and there was no decisive evidence of the dog, by whom the boy was bit, having been mad. Surely Dr. Percival also is too hasty in deciding, that the hydrophobia is 'to be considered and treated as a malignant species of tetanus'—The poison of a mad dog '*not to be traced in its progress through the lymphatics into the circulation!*' Dr. Percival's memory or our own fails; but the facts are on record, and these must decide. The following observations are curious.

'One of the pointers of Mr. S. which had been long ill, voided, in consequence of some violent purgatives, two tæniæ, each several feet in length. They were, when voided, in a convoluted state. A maid-servant who had seen the dog discharge them, washed them, and having put them on a large saucer, carried them up stairs, to shew them to her master. Mr. S. intending to have them preserved in spirits, filled the dish with boiling water, in order to clean them more completely; and, at the same time, as they appeared perfectly alive, to kill them. By the boiling water, however, they seemed to be little if at all injured, as they continued, with little variation, the same twisting motions which they had before exhibited. After having in vain waited for their destruction from this ordeal, he poured off the water, now nearly cold, and substituted for it some very strong double whisky. But from that, they acquired additional vigour; and their motions, which before were languid, now became brisk and animated. To use Mr. S.'s facetious expression, "they appeared to be better for a dram." He supposed, however, that this violent agitation might only be a prelude to their death; and that it was occasioned by the pain arising from the destructive action of the liquor. But, after a considerable time, their life and activity continued, to his astonishment unimpaired. And it was only by adding to the spirit a quantity of corrosive sublimate, that they were at length destroyed.

'Can this obstinate tenacity of life be explained from the nature of the animal in which the tæniæ were bred? The fæces of a dog are a most corroding substance. In intestines containing such fæces, the tæniæ were generated, and lived. Having then a frame capable of resisting the influence of this corroding substance, by which they were constantly surrounded, it is not, perhaps, so

much to be wondered at, that they should be able to sustain, without material injury, the action even of boiling water, or of the strongest spirit.'

The green fossil oil of Barbadoes is found to be useful, in that island, in cases of lepra and cancer. We shall add only, for general benefit, a new and more exact liquor probatorius, to discover impregnations of lead.

To two drachms of calcareous hepar sulphuris, prepared from equal parts of calcined oysters (probably oyster-shells), and sulphur are to be added seven drachms of cream of tartar and a quart of water. The whole must be put in a bottle that will hold about three pints, and shaken for a quarter of an hour. The liquor, decanted, must be kept in small well-corked bottles.

Fœtus extra Uterum Historia, cum Inductionibus Quæstionibusque aliquot subnexis. Accedunt porro Tabulæ Explanatrices cum Tabulis itidem Linearibus, subsidiariæ Illustrationis ergo superadditis. Auctore Henrico Krohn, M. D. &c. Folio. 12s. Nicoll.

IN the most important organs, and the most important functions, nature seems peculiarly attentive, and seldom 'sports' with the one, or 'eludes,' by any imperfection the other. Physiologists, therefore, who assist their investigations by observing the consequences of defects, have found little aid from the errors of nature in the functions of generation and conception. The effects of local diseases they well know; but in what manner conception takes place, or even the source of the embryo, they are unable to ascertain. The few cases in which the fœtus has appeared, either in the Fallopian tube, the abdomen from the bursting of the tube, or the ovarium, are consequently collected with peculiar care, and lead to the conclusion, that, as the fœtus appears occasionally without the uterus, it is most probably to be traced to another organ, and primarily escapes from the ovary.

The case is in its circumstances simple. A little woman of 30, of a delicate constitution, affected with coldness of the stomach and bowels, indigestion, and other dyspeptic complaints, conceived, as she supposed, and at about the seventh month, from peculiar circumstances in her situation, was admitted into the Middlesex hospital. These complaints, with a few anomalies, were supposed to arise from retroversion of the uterus; and this to the intelligent reader, for to others we do not now write, will suggest their nature. They appeared, however, to be owing to a conception in the left ovary: the
right

right was discovered, but the left could not be found, and the left Fallopian tube lay over, and across the sac that contained the fœtus. There is a little seeming inaccuracy in one respect in the account: the fœtus is said to be about the age of seven months; and its weight, four pounds and a half avoirdupoise, seems to countenance the supposition; yet, in the case, it is said that, when she reckoned herself in the seventh month, she had not felt the child for ten weeks; and those symptoms, which are supposed most unequivocally to show the death of the child, were observed. We mean not to say that this is an inaccuracy in Dr. Krohn. He relates what he was told, and what he saw, faithfully; but we mention it to suggest, whether it may not happen that when the fœtus, is extra-uterine, the catamenia may continue some time after impregnation. The bulk, felt in the cavity of the sacrum, was a very large placenta, and the weight of the tumour had drawn up the cervix uteri.

The uterus was enlarged, and covered with the decidua, supporting the opinions of Dr. Hunter, that the increased size of the uterus is not owing to distention only, and that the decidua is a part of the maternal system. No distinct membranes could be traced in the sac containing the fœtus, except in one small part. Every where else it was of an uniform texture and considerable thickness. Though the placenta was large, the connecting vessels were remarkable small. On the uterus were some small tubercular excrescences, which were solid, and apparently of the same texture with the uterus itself.

Our author's inductions and queries we have in part anticipated. The only quere, which we need notice, is that which suggests, in a similar instance, the propriety of an operation. That an operation could have been performed in this instance, at an earlier period, with some degree of safety, or at least with much less danger than the Cæsarian section, may be allowed; for there is less chance of air being admitted into the cavity of the abdomen, as a tumour of this kind would not retract, and the vessels are evidently smaller, so as to render an internal hæmorrhage less probable. But we apprehend the certainty of the situation cannot be ascertained, so as to justify the operator in the attempt, even to himself: they can never be ascertained sufficiently to justify him to the world. It is more probable that mischief will be done to the constitution, before the child is advanced so far as to enable the practitioner to judge with accuracy. We have but few conclusions to draw: it is from this and other facts of the same kind clear, that a perfect fœtus *may* be formed in the ovarium, and

the consequence is, that it *is always* formed there. This fact, while it totally destroys the systems of Buffon and Lewenhoeck, leaves us almost wholly to the mercy of Bonnet, whose doctrines, notwithstanding numerous difficulties that will continue to be felt, must be pronounced the most probable one. This case teaches us also, that Dr. Hunter's opinion, respecting the enlargement of the uterus, must be admitted with some limitation. Distention certainly is one cause, and the uterus, allowing only of a limited distention, is probably the first cause of labour; for, in this and other instances, the enlargement effected by the change in the circulation in consequence of conception, by no means increases the size of the uterus to the same degree as the presence of the foetus would have done.

The case is illustrated with four plates: the drawings are executed with equal accuracy and spirit, by M. Chalon, a very ingenious young artist in this department, and the engravings are by M. Duterreau: they are clear and elegant.

An English translation of the case is annexed.

Discourses on various Subjects, delivered in the Island of Barbadoes. By the Rev. H. E. Holder. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. boards. Dilly. 1791.

THERE are few kinds of writing which afford a greater variety than Sermons. In the composition of them we observe no fixed principles, no canons of criticism to which we can refer. They are, in general, either specimens of a peculiar style, defences of peculiar doctrines, or adapted to a peculiar class of people. They flow from the press in the greatest abundance, and although a degree of real merit, or perhaps mere accident, may procure to some of them a temporary reputation and a proportional notice; we are afraid that far the greatest part are confined to the lumber-room of the bookseller.

The present collection is offered to the public by a modest address, in which the author informs us that, an anxious desire to promote the glorious cause in which he embarked, had induced him to wave every objection against the publication of them. The doctrines which they contain appeared to him of the greatest consequence, and impressed themselves on his mind with the most thorough conviction. Under the influence of these prepossessions, he intreats every candid and serious reader to examine them with impartiality and attention; and to accept them in the same spirit of charity and benevolence in which he flatters himself they were originally preached. To that class of readers, denominated *serious*, these discourses will

will certainly be acceptable. They contain some of the principal doctrines of the established church urged upon orthodox grounds, and enforced with rather more argument than we meet with in sermons on a similar plan, and calculated for popular service. Without any striking beauties, far less an uniform elegance of style, there is a plainness and perspicuity in the language, and an easy flow of words, joined to an earnestness of manner which we doubt not must have recommended them from the pulpit, and no less fits them for private perusal. In adverting to the Socinian tenets, he does not indulge himself in the vulgar railing of controversy, nor advance any refutation which he does not seem convinced is founded on the sacred oracles. His mode of quotation is prompt and appropriate. Quotation in defence of what the preacher advances, though obviously an ornament in the composition of a sermon, is very often sacrificed to the refinements of a modern, but less simple style than that of holy writ—With this opinion, however, of Mr. Holder's Discourses, we must add that we have found but little originality in his arguments; and that often when he promises to explain an obscure passage, or defend a disputed tenet, he seems to consider the former as already understood, and the latter as already established. Hence we are disposed to commend the pious intention and diligence of the preacher, where we cannot acknowledge the acumen of the critic, or the depth of the theologian.

These Discourses are forty in number. Vol. I. contains twenty-one, on the following subjects—The New Year, Ps. xc. 10.—The Epiphany, Matt. viii. 13.—The Conversion of St. Paul, Philip. iii. 12.—Quinquagesima Sunday, 1 Cor. xiii. 3.—First Sunday in Lent, Matt. iv. 1.—Good Friday, Rom. iv. 25.—Easter Day, same text.—Good Friday, Heb. x. 10.—Whitsunday, John iii. 5.—Ditto. John xvi. 7, 8.—Trinity Sunday, Heb. xi. 6.—Ditto, John xvi. 12, 13, 14, 15.—Twenty-fifth Sunday after Trinity, Jer. xxiii. 6.—Advent Sunday, John i. 11, 12, 13.—Fourth Sunday in Advent, Isaiah xi. 6, 7, 8.—Sunday before Christmas, John i. 23.—Christmas Day, Isaiah vii. 14.—Fast-day in Commemoration of the Hurricane in Barbadoes in 1780, Isaiah x. 25.—Sacrament of Baptism, Rom. vi. 3.—Sacrament of the Lord's Supper, Luke xii. 19.—Ditto, 1 Cor. xv. 29.

Volume II. contains—Repentance and Faith necessary to the Reception of the Gospel, Mark i. 14, 15.—The Christian Cross, Luke xiv. 27.—The Violent who take the Kingdom of Heaven, Matt. xi. 13.—The Necessity of becoming like little Children, Matt. xv. 3.—The opposite Consequences of vicious and virtuous Conduct, Rom. vi. 21, 22, 23.—The Canaan-

tish Woman, Matt. xv. 28.—The Necessity of Offences coming, explained, Matt. xviii. 7.—The lost Sheep, Luke xv. 7.—The Vanity of this World, a motive to fix our Affections on the next, Ecclef. i. 14.—The Righteousness of the Scribes and Pharisees opposed to that of the Christian, Matt. v. 20.—Nathan and David, 2 Sam. xii. 7.—Ahab and Elijah, 1 Kings xxi. 18, 19.—The Christian Cup of cold Water, Matt. x. 42.—The Love of God and of our Neighbour, Matt. xxvii. 37, 38, 39, 40.—The Love of God, 1 John iv. 19.—The Duty of Forgiveness, Matt. xviii. 35.—That Censure should begin with our own Faults, John viii. 7.—One Thing needful, Luke x. 42.—God's chastenings those of a Father, Deut. viii. 5.—The Sufferings of this World not to be compared with the Glory of the next, Rom. viii. 18.

It is not easy to select from Sermons, written upon the plan of these, such portions as will speak the general merit of the whole. The following, however, may serve to give some idea of the author's sentiments on a point of much contest, the ATONEMENT. After stating 'the reasonableness and propriety of God's appointing and accepting the substitution of an innocent person to bear the guilt and punishment of sinful men,' (Discourse 6th on Rom. iv. 25.) our author proceeds.

'The Scriptures represent our blessed Lord, as having made a full, perfect, and sufficient sacrifice for the sins of the whole world;' inasmuch as it was entirely pleasing and acceptable to God, and has accordingly been received by him, as a complete equivalent for the deficiencies of his creatures. If we examine into the nature of the person, who is said to have made this sacrifice, it is impossible to conceive any one, who could have been so worthy a substitute, in the place of a delinquent world.

'For, whether we appeal to the express declarations of Scripture concerning him, to the works which he performed on earth, or to his own account of himself, we cannot but believe him to have been, most truly and literally, partaker of the Divine essence: in short, that if words have any meaning, and actions admit of any inference to be drawn from them, he was Very God, no less than Very Man. The truth of this has indeed been controverted by many, whom Christian charity will induce us to believe have doubted with sincerity and rectitude of intention; but their incredulity, it is to be presumed, has arisen in the best of them, from a partial consideration of the difficulties which lie only on one side of the question: for nothing seems more impracticable than to assign a meaning to many texts of Scripture, which speak of our blessed Lord in the most exalted terms imaginable, unless

we suppose him to have been truly God ; and, if so, nothing can be more irreconcilable to reason, than to suppose him to be God, and yet possess of a distinct essence from God the Father :—arguing, then, in the most simple manner, from truths revealed to truths inferred —(even supposing that Revelation had not specifically declared to us, that the Word was God ; that Jesus Christ “ is called the Word of God ;” and that he himself had not positively told us, that “ he and his Father are One,”)—we shall find that we are unavoidably brought to the belief of the Catholic doctrine of the Trinity ; while in that of the incarnation of our Lord we clearly discover the reason why he is so often spoken of in Scripture in terms of humiliation, which describe him not only as inferior to the Father, but even to the qualified divinity to which some have presumed to degrade him :—the subject, immediately under consideration, will itself suggest a very strong collateral proof of the truth we have just insisted on ; for if he had not been truly and properly God, he could not have been so absolutely perfect himself as to have been able to offer a full equivalent for the manifold imperfections of men : nor could the benefits accruing from his interposition have been so properly said to have been purchased by him, as to have been conferred by God ; while, in the present case, both of the expressions in question, are wholly consistent with the truth :—nor could he, in any strictness of speech, have been said “ to lay down his life,” and “ to take it again,” by an act of his own will, but by that of God the Father ; whereas the Scriptures represent him to have as voluntarily suffered, as they declare that God had voluntarily accepted his sufferings :—and, as it was necessary that our Redeemer should be God, so it was equally necessary that he should be man ; otherwise he could not have suffered for us at all ; nor in any way with such consistency, as in the very nature which had rebelled, and which had, consequently, incurred the punishment of death which had been denounced against it : hence it is that we are told, that it behoved him to be, in all things, made like “ unto us, sin only excepted ;” that he should be born as a man, endure every thing that is incident to man, and at last actually die—under that oppressive sense of human infirmity and wretchedness, which his mournful apostrophe to his heavenly Father so feelingly described ;—“ My God ! My God ! why hast thou forsaken me !”—Dies, did I say ? Yea, that he should die [but most unjustly] as a criminal ; tried and condemned, in all the forms at least of public authority and jurisdiction, in order that man should really suffer for man’s transgression, and that the immutable laws of Divine equity should stand unshaken and untransgressed. Considering our Lord, therefore, as concentrating in himself the divine and human natures, it is impossible to conceive a more
worthy

worthy or more proper substitute than himself; a mediator better qualified to transact between God and man, than this wonderful God-Man! so intimately connected, so identically the same with both.'

The Sermons contained in the second volume are chiefly on subjects of popular use and tendency; our author's *morality* is grafted on religion, and he proves himself every where to be a sound moralist and a good textuary. From John viii. 7, he deduces that *censure should begin with our own faults*. The concluding paragraphs of this discourse are no unfavourable specimen of his manner of treating such subjects.

• It must be evident to every one, that the man who assumes the right of condemning others, sets them at defiance, with respect to their detecting whatever may be reprehensible in his own actions; and that, whether he directly means it or not, they will not fail to return his ill offices upon every favourable occasion. Benevolence and humanity are duties which derive an obligation on our practice, from motives of interest, which nearly effect our own welfare; so that where we neglect the discharge of them, we shall find, that we ourselves are greatly the losers by it: our conduct, as well as our condition, is unstable and inconstant: we can, therefore, as little expect to be independent of the world, by the consistency of the one, as by the permanency of the other: moments of weakness, and moments of necessity await us all; and if we have been hitherto superior to the resentment of others, we have no reason to suppose, but that a time will come, when we shall be made to feel the weight of it, in some painful degree or other, aggravated by the reflection, that our severity has more than authorized theirs: but these are only temporal considerations, to deter us from censoriousness of temper; there are other spiritual ones, which are of infinitely greater importance to us here, as well as hereafter: we may depend that our Lord will not fail to condemn and to punish our severity of judgment, by dealing as rigorously with us. It is a melancholy truth; which is every where demonstrated, that we are all highly culpable in the sight of God; and, in point of real desert, subject to the penalties of default and disobedience towards him; the whole system of gospel-salvation is founded upon the fact of our being lost and ruined creatures, whose sole dependance is on the mercy and compassion of God: whatever therefore deprives us of this last refuge of the sinner, must render our condition desperately dangerous; and this is plainly the case with censoriousness and severity of judgment. We do not require the instruction of revelation, to be convinced, that qualities like these must, in imperfect beings, be highly unbecoming and unjustifiable, and naturally remove them from the
favour

favour of God, whose goodness is impartially extended to all the sons of men : for do not they establish a rule, against the application of which, to ourselves, we should loudly remonstrate ?—nay, which, if rigorously observed, must prove our everlasting ruin, the ruin of every human creature, who should be subject to it ? Do we not, therefore, in employing it against our fellow-creatures, contribute our utmost to compass their destruction, by means which, if armed with sufficient authority, would inevitably accomplish it ? and have we not every reason to apprehend that it may be returned upon ourselves with all its tremendous consequences, by a governor, whom our prejudices can never influence ? These are the dictates of natural reason and conscience, which are most positively confirmed by the sanctions of Revelations. Our Lord hath assured us that “ with what measure we mete, it shall be measured to us again ;” and hath therefore cautioned us “ not to judge, lest we should be judged” in our turn : and his Apostle, St. James, hath added, that “ he shall have judgment without mercy that hath shewed no mercy.”—In conformity with these denunciations, St. Paul hath exhorted us ‘ to speak evil of no man, to be no brawlers, but gentle, shewing all meekness unto all men ; for that we ourselves also were sometimes foolish, disobedient, deceived, serving divers lusts and pleasures, living in malice and envy, hateful and hating one another : and therefore, that if a man be overtaken in a fault, those that are spiritual should restore such a one (if possible) in the spirit of meekness, considering themselves, lest they also be tempted, and bearing one another’s burdens, that so they may fulfil the law of Christ ” We find that, in that admirable form of prayer, prescribed by our Lord as the standard of supplication, to be used by all his disciples, we are taught to request that “ our trespasses may be forgiven, as we forgive them that trespass against us :” now the forgiveness of injuries is a higher and more difficult exertion of Christian charity, than the mere forbearance from censuring our brethren : and yet on the performance of this arduous duty our own forgiveness is made dependent : much more, then, must such forbearance be considered as essential to it ; easier as it is in itself, than that quality, so positively required ; and so nearly connected with it, as to be a necessary step to its attainment. In a word, then, the censorious and malicious can have no possible claim upon the kingdom of Heaven, and will as infallibly incur its punishments, as those who have lived up to the commandments of their blessed Master, which enjoins them “ to love one another,” will be made partakers of its everlasting rewards : and, whatever may be their present plea for indulging their diabolical tempers, it will, hereafter—in the hour of their condemnation, be the sentence of their own minds, that they have acted against the general spirit, as well

as transgressed the most explicit precepts of his Gospel of peace, benevolence, compassion and charity.'

Mr. Holder takes occasion to acknowledge his obligations, in two or three points, to the writings of Hooker, Sherlock and Lowth; and upon the whole these Discourses may be recommended to the perusal of 'the serious,' and of those who have not rendered Christianity so very rational as to be wholly uninteresting.

Eight Sermons preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1792, at the Lectures founded by the late Rev. John Bampton, M. A. Canon of Salisbury. By J. Eveleigh, D. D. 8vo. 5s. boards. White and Son. 1792.

THE plan of our present lecturer is to take a view of our religion, with regard to its substance, its history, the arguments by which it is confirmed, and the objections by which it is opposed. To throw a new light on subjects which have employed the Christian world for nearly two centuries, or even to place old and approved arguments in a new and more convincing form, requires no small share of ability; and, perhaps, much more than can be always found in him who is chosen for this task, and who has but a short time to prepare discourses that are expected to stand the test of learned criticism, and to furnish a distinguished proof of the progressive wisdom of the university of Oxford. Under these disadvantages, for every man of reading and genius will find it a disadvantage to be obliged to pursue a beaten track, Dr. Eveleigh is entitled to the praise of industry at least, and though we cannot account his work to be a *catholic* defence of religion against all its opponents, we are willing to give it the merit of an able defence of the church of England in all its *articles, rites, and ceremonies*. He has collected abundance of authorities in support of his opinions; and, in general, treats the enemies of religion with candour. There are prejudices retained, indeed, which even in the height of our orthodoxy we cannot approve; but some allowance must be made for what is instilled in youth, and confirmed by *situation*.

As the subjects of these Sermons have been presented to our readers in a great variety of shapes, we shall content ourselves with a brief notice of the heads of each sermon, and a short extract from one of them, which will serve as a specimen of our author's manner and sentiments.

Sermon I. states the substance of our religion, from its earliest declarations in the Scriptures, both of the Old and
New

New Testament, to its complete publication after the resurrection of Christ. The grand scheme of man's redemption was fully perfected by the acceptance of the atonement made by Christ for human sin, and can admit in itself of no variation from subsequent circumstances of time and place.

Sermon II. III. and IV. contain a sketch of the history of religion, from the above period to the present times; first, from the publication of our religion, then to the establishment of it by Constantine; secondly, from its establishment by Constantine to the commencement of the Reformation; thirdly, from the commencement of the Reformation to the present state of our own church. It is easy to see that in the compass of three sermons these subjects can be handled but in a superficial way. The detail, however, is regular, and strict to historical evidence. Our author is sufficiently *compendious* in his notice of the Dissenters, as the following extract will show, nor do we think him by any means invulnerable in this place.

‘ Other remote and pernicious consequences of the persecution of queen Mary discover themselves in the invincible aversion from our church, which prevailed among many of its members, who had been obliged during her reign to seek for shelter in foreign countries; and who, when the storm which drove them from their home had spent its fury, returned not with any affection for their old communion. They had been driven from their country by the persecuting spirit of the Romish church; they naturally, therefore, carried with them a hatred of this church: and the example of foreign reformers, adding force and virulence to their private resentments, left them on their return no charity for any establishment, which bore the most distant resemblance to it. These men formed in process of time the original class of avowed Dissenters among us, and from their own form of church government have been called presbyterians. During their exile they expressed an ardent desire to alter our liturgy, and to reduce it to a conformity with that of the French Protestants; though there is no reason to expect that their objections to our liturgy would have been obviated by this alteration: and, such was the superiority of our own institution, that one of high character, who was well acquainted with that liturgy, is known to have declared soon after, upon a view of our solemn service and ceremonies, “that if the reformed churches in France had kept the same order, there would have been thousands of protestants more.” Not long after the return of these exiles they proceeded to erect a new form of church-government, and constituted a regular presbytery. But how little they were disposed to agree among themselves in any form of divine worship, which might be substituted in the room of the established liturgy, is well ascertained by the infinite variety of opinions
found

found among them, when they were requested by the great statesman of that age to draw up such a liturgy, as they could recommend and approve in all its parts. Whether it arose from an irreconcilable disagreement among themselves concerning a liturgy, or from their hatred of the church of Rome, they soon expressed an aversion from our establishment not only on account of the authority, which it gives to the king as head of the church, and its episcopal form of government; but also on account of its admission of set forms of prayer: they, moreover, expressed offence at the habits of the clergy, the use of church-music, the sign of the cross prescribed in the office of baptism, and various other such circumstances; insisting that the church of England ought to conform in all respects to the usages of foreign Protestants, and proceeding by degrees to a rage for innovation which was scarcely exceeded by the wildest enthusiasm of antecedent reformers.

‘ To guard, therefore, that most invaluable moderation, with which we were so peculiarly blessed at the commencement of our reformation, it was found necessary after the restoration of our church under Elizabeth to provide it with new barriers against the enthusiasm of innovation. This was done by alterations made in the articles, by the canons which were enforced during the reign of Elizabeth, and by the requisition of a strict conformity to the ecclesiastical establishment.

‘ The alterations, made at that time in the articles, were not succeeded, like those made at the same time in the liturgy, that other distinguished part of our system, by new alterations at subsequent periods, in order to advance our established forms to their present state of excellence: but these articles have thenceforward remained the same unvaried compendium of our national faith. As Bp. Bull says, “ they are not proposed as essentials of religion, without which no man can be saved: these are supposed to be contained in the old creeds, and therefore the old creeds are made parts of our liturgy, and are to be joined in by all.” We are to consider the articles, as a summary of our religion, calculated to preserve union and peace among all the members of our church, and to ascertain and regulate the belief and doctrines of those among us, who are intrusted with the care of public instruction.’

Sermon V. Arguments in proof of the truth of our religion, the being and attributes of God, and the credibility of a Divine Revelation.

Sermon VI. Proofs that it was accompanied with external and divine attestations of its truth, and that it is distinguished by its universality.

Sermons VII. and VIII. General sources of objection, and particular objections.

Throughout the whole of these Sermons Dr. Eveleigh displays

plays a fund of historical information, in general well digested, but in some parts there are symptoms of the *esprit du corps*, which we could have dispensed with. His style is correct, but the profusion of notes disturbs the reader's attention, even while they are presumed to add to his information, and in tracing the earlier periods of our Church-History, we could have wished Dr. Eveleigh had consulted more with original writers, and less with compilers.—The design of the founder of this lecture certainly was, that his troops should provide new armour as well as ammunition, and in digging for entrenchments, should go deeper than Hume's History, or Chambers' Dictionary.

A General View of the Variations which have been made in the Affairs of the East India Company, from the Conclusion of the War in India, in 1784, to the Commencement of the present Hostilities. By G. Anderson, A. M. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Stockdale. 1792.

IT is with patriotic pleasure that we consider the flourishing state of our Indian possessions, demonstrated in the present clear and accurate publication, derived from the most unquestionable and authentic sources. The contents of Mr. Anderson's work will present a kind of analysis, which is the more necessary to convey an idea of its nature, as our limits will not permit us to follow minutely its various statements.

‘ Introduction, explanatory of the nature of the East India Company's accounts.

‘ Sect. I. Comparison of the state of the East India Company's finances, at the conclusion of the late war, and in 1790-91.

‘ Sect. II. Amount realized by the company at home, in this period, from the revenues in India, and profits on their trade.

‘ Sect. III. Amount received from the revenues of India, in the years 1786-7, 1787-8, 1788-9, and 1789-90.

‘ Sect. IV. State of the Company's trade with India and China for the same period.

‘ Sect. V. General result of the foregoing statements.

‘ Sect. VI. Remarks on a late publication on the affairs of the East India Company.

‘ Appendix, containing abstracts or copies of the several accounts referred to.’

In his Introduction Mr. Anderson observes that, as the exclusive charter of the East India company is near its expiration, and its renewal on the point of becoming a subject of discussion, a particular reference may be expected to the effects

fects produced by the present system of government. The territorial finances have been repeatedly exhibited in the house of commons; but the commissioners, having no superintendence of the commercial concerns of the company, the state of the trade has not been investigated in that way. Mr. Anderson, therefore, gives in this work a condensed view of the finances of the company, including the profits on their import and export trade, and the amount realised from the revenues of the territorial possessions in India, since the year 1784 to the commencement of the present hostilities with Tippoo Sultan.

‘ The constitution of the East India company is in general sufficiently well understood: from being a society of merchants, merely occupied in trade, between Great Britain and the East Indies, they have arisen by negotiation and conquest, to the sovereign authority over a large and fertile empire in India, which yields a revenue of about six and a half millions sterling per annum.

‘ From this mixture of a delegated sovereign power, and an extensive trade, the transactions of the East India company assume a complicated form, and the situation of their finances, particularly, can only be determined by considering them in both these capacities.—As sovereigns, with respect to the amount realised from the territorial possessions in India, and the subsidies of their allies—and as merchants, with respect to the profits of their commerce.’

For the particular nature of the East India company’s accounts, computed in the divisions of assets, stock by computation, dead stock, &c. we must refer to the work itself, and pass to the first section, from the commencement of which the following interesting paragraphs demand particular attention.

‘ The long and expensive war, in which the British provinces in India were engaged, terminated in the month of March 1784, by the ratification of peace with the Mysorean government. The distresses to which the East India company were reduced, both at home and abroad, in consequence of this war, and that in Europe, had for some time antecedent to that period, formed a prominent feature in the discussions of parliament.

‘ In December 1783, February and May 1784, the directors laid before the house of commons, such accounts as they then possessed respecting the general state of their finances. But the impossibility of drawing any satisfactory information from statements, made up under the general derangement of their affairs which then prevailed, together with the apprehensions which the measures, then in agitation, relative to the future government of India had excited in the public mind, reduced the credit of the com-

pany to the lowest ebb. Their capital stock, paying a dividend of 8 per cent. interest, sold for 120 per cent.; their bonds at home, bearing then 5 per cent. interest, were negotiated from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 per cent. discount; their bonds and certificates at Bengal and Madras, bore from 18 to 40 per cent. discount; at Bombay 50 per cent. and orders on the treasury there sold at 65, and upwards, per cent. discount.

From this depression of credit, which, in itself, added accumulated weight to every burthen on the company, the various measures, which, under the present administration of the company's affairs, were adopted, soon effectually relieved them, so that in little more than four years, their capital stock was raised to 174 per cent. (and is now upwards of 200 per cent.); their bonds, then reduced to 4l. per cent. per annum, were negotiated at 5l. 17s premium; their paper at Bengal, in 1789, bore a premium, and the certificates there, when the present war broke out, were beginning to be negotiated at 6 per cent. which is, in fact, but half the usual interest in that country.'

Instead of following our author through the numerous details of his various sections, consisting of calculations little interesting to the general reader, we shall extract the fifth section, which presents a brief recapitulation of the whole.

'I shall conclude this part of the subject, with recapitulating the results of the several accounts referred to.

First; From the comparison of the debts owing by the Company, and of the effects belonging to them in India and China, as they stood on the 30th of April 1786, and 30th of April 1790, it appeared that the debts were less by - £. 3,213,612
And cash and bills, &c. more by - - - 575,550

Better in India and China £. 3,789,162

From the comparison of the debts at home, it appeared that the Company had applied to the payment of debts at home, from 1787 to 1791 £. 1,414,596
And that the goods in warehouse, and other assets, were more by - 1,723,083

£. 3,137,679

And that a sum equal to this amount, had been realized at home in this period, was further proved, within a small difference, from the comparison of the goods sold, and of the other articles of receipt, with the several payments made, or charges incurred.

C. R. N. AR. (V). July, 1792.

X

From

290 *View of the Affairs of the East India Company.*

From this sum, deducting the amount
of debts transferred home from India,
between the 30th of April 1786, and
30th April 1790 - - - £. 2,682,505

The Company's affairs at home appear-
ed to be better to the amount of - - - £. 455,174

The total improvement in their affairs abroad and at
home, by this comparison is - - - £. 4,244,336

Second; From the accounts of the sums supplied
from the resources of India, to the purposes of com-
merce, and to encrease the cash in the treasuries,
it appeared, that after allowing for all expences
incurred at home, the net amount was

£. 3,230,846

The profits on the goods imported from
India and China, sold, and in the
warehouses, appeared to have amount-
ed to - - - £. 400,315

And the amount received
in China for the sale of
export goods, more than
the prime cost of the
same at home, was - 205,428

Ditto, by sending bullion,
ditto - - - 373,380

Net amount derived from
the import and export
trade - - - £. 979,116

Total improvement from the revenues
of India, and profits on the trade - - - £. 4,209,962

‘ The results thus drawn from accounts very distinct from each
other, being so nearly equal, is a sufficient proof of their general
correctness; the difference is 34,374l. to which sum, the net im-
provement of the Company's affairs, as resulting from the compa-
rison of their debts and assets in 1786-7, and 1790-91, has been
accounted for, by the amount derived from the resources of India,
and the profits on their trade, and this difference has been already
explained by the circumstance of the comparative statement of
debts and assets, including, with respect to the home accounts,
one month more in 1787, than the statements of receipts and pay-
ments, and profits on the trade at home.’

Mr. Anderson then gives some remarks on a late publica-
tion, intituled, A Letter to the Right Hon. Henry Dundas, and
shews several gross errors in the computations there given.
The

The Appendix contains the various accounts upon which this work is founded.

Strictures and occasional Observations upon the System of British Commerce with the East Indies: with Remarks and proposed Regulations, for encouraging the Importation of Sugar from Bengal; and Hints for an Arrangement of the Trade after it shall be separated from the Revenue of our territorial Acquisitions. To which is added, A Succinct History of the Sugar Trade in General. By the Author of 'A Short Review of the Trade of the East India Company.' 8vo. 4s. Debrett. 1792.

SUCH is the prolix and tautological title of this pamphlet, which we have transcribed entire, as a kind of summary of the work of the author. From an Advertisement prefixed we learn that the whole of this publication was prepared for the press in the month of February last, under a general belief that government had given it to be understood, that the duties and drawback upon sugar from the East Indies should be put upon an equal footing with those from the West India islands. As this measure has not been determined upon, the reasoning proceeds only on supposition. Our author then mentions Mr. Anderson's General View of India Affairs, and observes, that many of the statements there given correspond with those in this tract: and the differences he submits to the reader, as he writes for information, and not from any party-view.

In his Introduction the author observes that a revolution is about to take place in the affairs of the East India company, which certainly will materially change, and probably either improve or injure, the general system of British commerce.

'Aware of the danger of disturbing existing establishments, to make room for new ones, the following observations would never have been offered to the public, if it was not understood from authority, that great and important changes are determined upon.

'A system is said to be actually framed for the regulation and future government of our commerce with the East Indies and China, which waits only the news of a peace in the Carnatic, to be submitted to parliament; but no part of it is at present suffered to transpire.

'The following hints and observations are the result of some experience, and much reflection upon this subject. If any of them coincide with the principles adopted by the servants of the public, they will confirm the author in his private judgment; and if any new lights should chance to be thrown out, they are much at the public service.'

The advantages of a sugar-trade with India are pointed out in the first and following chapters. In the third chapter the author presents the following observation :

‘ The resources of Bengal are innumerable, and inexhaustible. If, therefore, the India trade should be laid open, it will be no very sanguine idea to indulge the hope of soon after seeing employed in it annually, instead of nine ships of seven thousand and ninety-five tons, taken up by the company this year for Bengal, as many as shall make up the difference of British export freight, between the years one thousand seven hundred and eighty-nine, and one thousand seven hundred and ninety, which Mr. Chalmers states at no fewer than eight hundred eighty-six vessels of ninety thousand one hundred and nine tons burthen !!!’

In the fifth chapter the claims of the ryots to the right of freeholders are considered. Sir C. Rous, and most of the writers on the landed property of India, have deduced the tenure immediately from the sovereign to the farmer; and little attention has been paid to the most numerous and useful class, that of the ryots, or tillers of the soil. Our author observes, that the enquiry should begin at the bottom of the chain. The first stage of Indian government seems patriarchal, and during that pastoral state, no fixed property existed. As society advanced, property in the soil was acquired. The rajahs were as patriarchs; the zemindars only officers appointed by them. Such is our author’s reasoning, which is superficial and inconclusive.

The succeeding chapter attempts to prove that the East India company has gained nothing by its commerce.

‘ This will appear the less extraordinary, when it is found that the company has actually been carrying on its commerce from the date of the exclusive charter, to the present time, *without employing any real capital whatever*, upon the circulation of its own bonds, the sale of annuities, or upon the anticipated income of its mortgaged estate.

‘ To justify this assertion, there only needs a reference to the repeated enquiries of the alarmed proprietary into the state of their affairs, and a perusal of the reports of several committees of the house of commons appointed to examine them. It will there be discerned that neither the reports of proprietors nor committees, nor the different acts of parliament for instituting regulations and reform (suggested and passed, it must be supposed at the request of the court of directors), exhibit any proofs of intelligence, or capacity in that body, at all adequate to the administration of so important a trust as they have held for above thirty years past.’

After

After shewing the errors of the company's administration, the writer, in chapter ninth, proceeds to prove the expedience and practicability of dissolving the present East India company.

‘ Much the same struggle for power, and intrigue for confining the direction to the *aristocracy of the house-list*; the same secret influence of a powerful combination of ship-owners; the same expensive home-establishments, continue, at the present hour, to burthen and embarrass the real interest of the proprietors. Most of the persons employed in it are attached to the system by long intimacy, and by such a variety of complicated interests, connections, and dependencies, that, notwithstanding there are others among them, of the first ability, unhackled with these trammels, yet it may well be doubted whether it is even possible for the existing company, upon a separation of the revenues, ever to return to its primitive character of a trading corporation, with equal advantage to that of a new association, founded upon the enlightened principles of modern commerce, and unencumbered with the prejudices of the old system, or with the evil consequences of long perseverance in error and difficulty. No one will deny, that there exists at this moment a spirit and intelligence in the merchants of Great Britain, with competent funds at their command, for framing and conducting a commerce of this magnitude, without depending upon government for a capital, who will be ready to undertake either the whole China and India trade together or separately, with or without the exclusive privilege, *provided all restraints upon India importation be totally abolished.*’

He afterwards advises that parliament should insure the proprietors a continuance of their present dividend, amounting to two hundred and seventy-four thousand pounds a year.

In the Appendix, which is equal in size to the work, we first find an account of the introduction of sugar into America. It is remarkable that this commodity is now chiefly imported from America, though that be the only quarter of the world where it is not indigenious. The next article in the Appendix shews the impropriety of the application of the Manchester and Glasgow manufacturers to obtain restrictions on the importation of India piece goods. The other articles consist of estimates and accounts.

A Supplement is added, containing an examination of such parts of Mr. Anderson's General View as seem to affect the statements in this pamphlet. Our author, however, admits the great improvement of the Indian trade since the year 1790-91, and applauds Mr. Anderson's work.

Travels into Norway, Denmark, and Russia, in the Years 1788, 1789, 1790, and 1791. By A. Swinton, Esq. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1792.

TRAVELS are a species of writing which, besides being particularly easy in point of composition, prove highly gratifying to curiosity. The narratives which have been published of the fashionable Tour of Europe are therefore now become extremely numerous; and the northern countries, though far less grateful, to enquiry, have, of late years, likewise been visited by different travellers, perhaps not so much with the view of gratifying their own taste, as from the advantages which may arise from laying their information before the public. But whatever may be the motives of real travellers, there is a nominal class of itinerants, which we know with certainty to be entirely actuated by this consideration. We have read a circumstantial narrative of the travels of persons, who, during the time of their supposed peregrinations, were scarcely ever out of their closets; and have seen works of this kind published in the name of authors who had no other existence than in the title-page of the book. This is a species of imposition of a nature the most reprehensible, and ought to be *scouted* from the province of literature by every lover of sincerity and truth.

The common practice of such a manufacturer is, to take for his subject some portion of the globe which he thinks has a good chance of attracting the attention of the public. If any temporary circumstance should suggest the choice of a particular country, the idea is immediately adopted; and a narrative of its political transactions, if they should be in any degree interesting, forms a very convenient substitute, in a deficiency of other materials. The scene being fixed upon, the manufacturer has recourse to some book of genuine travels, from which he forms the basis of his narrative; disguising the plagiarism as much as possible, at the expence both of suppressing just remarks, and introducing others destitute of foundation. If any part of the excursion is made by sea, the wonders of the deep are attempted to be described with turgid declamation. The vessel, like the ship of Æneas, must be pushed on by the nymphs of the ocean; and, should any rocks project in its course, allusions to Scylla and Charybdis must never be forgotten.

The most convenient form of the narrative is that of Letters to a correspondent; which, at the same time that it is easy of composition, affords an opportunity of making a number of apostrophes. Digressions from the principal subject, as
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being the readiest means of swelling the work, are most liberally admitted; and scarcely any thing, however unsuitable, is rejected, that can contribute to the bulk, and, consequently, the price, of the manufacture. In a word, the whole is a flimsy tissue of a few facts, and a little topographical or national information, intermixed with a variety of materials, collected at random, and many of them fabricated anecdotes. Fanciful pictures are substituted in the room of just description; an affected vivacity is visible in every paragraph; and the humble author occasionally aspires to an invocation of the Muses.

After saying thus much of literary imposture in respect of some travels, *experto credite*, it may be sufficient to give our readers a succinct account of the present volume.

The narrative commences with the voyage across the North Sea, the course of which is described in a manner calculated for amusement, but affords no new information; instead of which the author presents us with reflections on the hardships of a sea-faring life, and a few other subsidiary speculations. Immediately after mentioning his arrival off Denmark, his attention is turned upon Algernon Sydney, the French revolution, and general reflections upon liberty.—Among the contents of the fifth Letter, he speaks of ‘hints for the welfare of Norway;’ but, upon examining the work, we meet not with any thing of the kind.—The two next Letters are chiefly occupied with slight desultory, and historical reflections on Denmark; to which is subjoined the character of the modern Danes, described by every author who has written concerning that people.

In the ninth Letter, the author sets out with the voyage from Elsinour to Riga; mentioning the first battle between the Swedes and Danes; and anecdotes of the king of Sweden. How far the narrative can be deemed interesting, our readers may judge from the following extract, the latter part of which we suspect to have been copied from the public prints about three years ago.

‘The ship in which I came passenger to Elsinour left me there, and proceeded upon her voyage to Prussia: my rout is for Riga, in Livonia. I embarked on board a small vessel, loaded to the water’s edge: there was no other at the Sound, and the season approaches when there will be none. I once more, as we passed the grounds, beheld the city of Copenhagen.

‘There were lying in the roads several ships of the line, Danish and Russian.—One of the Russian men of war sailed from the bay; the Danish ships saluted her; their thunder echoed to the

coasts of Sweden—a prelude to the bloody scenes that threaten Scandinavia.

‘ The Danes and Swedes have already had an engagement near Gottenburg ; the first, as allies of Russia. The Danes were much superior in number, and easily obtained the victory.

‘ The king of Sweden is arrived at Gottenburg, where he found every thing in the greatest confusion, and no preparation made for repelling an army of twelve thousand foes, at the gates. Gustavus summoned the burghers and officers in the town around him, He addressed them in a very pathetic speech, and urged them to their duty. “ I know,” said the king “ that there are traitors in my service : I desire that they may retire. I entreat that none, but such as are willing to save their country, may carry a sword in its defence !” Troops are daily coming into Gottenburg from every quarter ; and within the few days Gustavus has been there, the state of matters is amazingly altered. The presence of royalty makes treason hide its head.

‘ Elfsneur is crowded with troops—the drum and fife sound in every corner. It is but lately that the king of Sweden dined with his Danish majesty, in Copenhagen, *en famille*. Gustavus, without ceremony, journeyed to this city, arrived at his ambassador’s house, and requested to be directly introduced at court. The ambassador represented the impropriety of the hour, as Christian would be then at dinner. Gustavus resolved, nevertheless, to take pot-luck, and went with the plenipotentiary to the palace. Christian was cutting up a chicken, when the ambassador’s name was announced ; and the first intimation he had of his royal guest, was his appearance in his dining-room.’

In the eleventh Letter, the author, for the first time, assumes a consequential character. He informs us, that he had not yet rested his feet upon Russian ground, when an officer from the governor of Riga waited upon him, to know what intelligence there was from Denmark. He informed that gentleman of the skirmish near Gottenburg, betwixt the Swedes and Danes, and an express was instantly sent off to the court of Petersburg with the news.

The thirteenth Letter is ‘ the death of admiral Greig, and anecdotes of this great man ;’ but, to our astonishment, the whole is comprised in the few following lines !

‘ I am the most unfortunate being existing ! This morning an express arrived from Revel, with an account of the death of admiral Greig. I had heard of his recovery from a late illness only two days ago. This sad intelligence has struck a damp in every heart. My hopes are now blasted. I will post to Revel instantly, to pay the last duty to the memory of this hero. ‘ The

* The admiral had undergone great fatigue in expediting the fleet from Cronstadt: he saw every thing done himself, and attended often from four in the morning till ten o'clock at night. He was seized with a putrid fever, on board, soon after the engagement with the Swedes, but upon no account would he quit his station, and go on shore. He has died a willing victim in the service of Russia. In the first battle, many of his captains deserted him: he did not know whom to trust, and he kept himself the command, until death tore him from it.'

In the sixteenth Letter, the author returns to the contemplation of admiral Greig, and gives a particular account of the procession at his funeral, from the admiralty to the cathedral. The author's mind is so much occupied with the idea of this brave officer, that he not only details the naval engagement between him and the duke of Sudermania, but introduces the life of admiral Greig in a subsequent Letter, though without any particulars that can recommend the narrative to attention.

It would be equally tedious and unnecessary to mention the particular subjects of all these Letters, which are forty-four in number. They are, in general, largely interspersed with the public events of the time; and much of the common accounts of Russia, as well as of the Tartarean nations.—That we may gratify our readers with some amusement, where we cannot with any information, we shall lay before them the following extract, which corresponds with the authority of travellers.

* The Russian jubilee has commenced.—Ice hills are erected upon the Neva, and all the apparatus of a Bartholomew-fair. The river is crowded with the best, and with the worst company: much is the noise of men, and dogs, and boys. There must be at least thirty thousand people assembled. Her imperial majesty Catherine II. drove amidst her subjects in a sledge, followed by several others, with the attending officers of the court. A party of the hussar guards escorted her majesty. The same day appeared the grand duke and duchess, and after them came their children, the young grand dukes and duchesses. We had with us the whole imperial house of Russia, and they were received with every demonstration of loyalty and affection. The severe winter procured the Neva this honour. These assemblies do not take place upon the river unless when the ice has attained such a thickness as may insure safety. This winter is uncommonly severe, and seems remarkable, even to the Russians. There is no riot with all this bustle—not a surly look, nor a single blow given or received. The Russians are so busy in drinking, singing, and laughing, that they have no time
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for quarreling. The police are watchful ; but there does not appear to be much reason for their vigilance. The temples of Bacchus and of Venus now open their gates. These are built here of a construction proper for the climate, having stoves, folding doors, and double windows. The staggering votaries of the former make the air resound with their songs. A Russian never walks by himself when he gets drunk, if he can lay hold of a friend : three or four stagger in concert, and, very socially knock their heads together. They get drunk in company, and rise and fall as one man. They do not tipple for hours ; they swallow as much in two or three minutes as completely does the business they came about. If there be no sofas at hand, they can make a shift to lie wherever they tumble. With regard to love, and to dress, a beard a yard long is in high estimation among the fair nymphs of Russia. The Scotch have a merry air beginning with

The carle he came o'er the craft
With his beard new shaven.

Such a preparation in a Russian lover would go near to ruin his suit. The commonality have still a great veneration for this fringe of human hair, notwithstanding the efforts of their monarchs to root it out ; and it is only those depending upon government, in the army and navy, who have yet complied with the custom and the wish of the court. Those who retain their beards, retain likewise the ancient dress ; the long swaddling coat, either of skins, or of coarse cloth lined with skins, in winter, and in summer, of cloth only. About their middle they have a sash of any colour ; but what they mostly affect, is green or yellow. They wear trowsers instead of breeches and stockings : their limbs are, besides, wrapped in many folds of woollen stuffs to keep them warm, and above all they wear boots. Their shirts are fashioned as women's ; their necks exposed to the cold, and as hard and impenetrable, from this practice, as a piece of adamant. Government continue to exert every nerve to compel the subjects to adopt the German dress. The clergy alone excepted, none can procure any place, any favour from court, upon other condition than banishing the Asiatic sheep-skin robes. The worn-out veteran retires with a pension, upon the express terms of never again assuming the habit of his fathers. But so jealously attached are the multitude to former manners, and so honourable do they esteem them, that a Russian dressed in his beard and gown, tells you by his looks that he has not prostituted the memory of his ancestors.'

In one of these Letters we are presented with a few rude lines, said to be a female love-song, literally translated from the Kalmuc language. The author, who seems to affect a poetical

etical genius, has attempted a paraphrase of this insignificant composition; but, from some circumstances, there is reason to suspect, that the paraphrase was executed previously to the supposed original. It contains some rhimes that would disgrace even the metre of Sternhold and Hopkins, and abounds in a series of absurd and unpoetical metaphors. In the midst of this jargon, we find 'short-lived bliss, swimming, in its passage,' through life; and afterwards 'sinking, uncertain if to happiness or woe.'

Before we dismiss this volume, we have only to observe, that where the author has adhered to the narrative of travellers, his account of the northern nations, though imperfect, and void of novelty, may be considered in general, as faithful; but every addition of his own is suspicious, if not in reality ill-founded; and when he indulges himself in politics, it is rather in vague speculations than judicious reflections. He appears to have copied, as much as he could, the manner of Mr. Swinbure; but has amassed into the volume a multitude of trifling and uninteresting materials, with the view of giving variety to the *melange*.

Travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, Interspersed with Historical Relations and Political Inquiries. Illustrated with Charts and Engravings. By William Coxe, M. A. F. R. S. 5 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 12s. 6d. Boards. Cadell. 1792.

THESE Travels occur in our LVIIth volume, p. 401, and in the LVIIIth. p. 116, nor is it in consequence of any particular addition and improvements that we again notice them. They attract our attention at this time because of the fifth volume, which is wholly new, and which has been delayed longer on various accounts than we wished or intended.

In this gleanings, the result of another tour, it cannot be expected that the whole should be found equally valuable. We will, however, follow Mr. Coxe, and point out what is more particularly interesting. In Denmark our traveller again visited the canal of Kiel, now almost finished. Its object was to draw by Kiel into the Baltic, the commerce of Bremen, Hanover, and Westphalia, at present carried down the Weser, and by Gluckstadt upon the Elbe, to Hamburg and Lubeck, as well as to facilitate the transport of merchandise from Holland and the North Sea to the ports of the Baltic. But to this design Mr. Coxe sees some important impediments, of which time can only ascertain the effects. There is little doubt but the trade of Kiel, particularly from the *internal* parts

parts of Germany, will be greatly increased by the measure, and this was probably the chief object of the projector.

The accounts of the library of count Thott and M. Suhm we shall transcribe :

• The library of count Thott, probably the largest private collection in Europe, contains 110,000 books, and above 50,000 manuscripts. It is as remarkable for the rarity, as for the number of the books, and is particularly rich in the palæographic, or early printed books, of which there are above 2,000 printed in the 15th century.

• The catalogue of this curious and valuable collection will consist of several volumes ; of which two have been already published. The remaining volumes will be printed before 1792. The seventh volume, which comprises a list of the early impressions and manuscripts, will likewise give the early impressions and manuscripts in the king's library.

• Mr. Suhm's collection, though not so numerous as count Thott's library, deserves to be visited by the lover of letters. It contained in 1785, at least 50,000 books, entirely collected by himself. It is extremely rich in historical and topographical publications in all languages, and particularly those which relate to the antiquities and history of northern Europe, the favourite object of the learned proprietor's studies and researches. He possesses also a fine collection of manuscripts in the Greek and Oriental languages, and particularly those which belonged to the celebrated Reiskius, for the purchase of which he bestows on the widow of that celebrated critic an annuity of 40l.

• The library of Mr. Suhm is open every morning, from nine to eleven, for the use and inspection of the men of letters and students of the university.

The revolution effected by the prince-royal of Denmark, at the age of 16, is not yet known in all its circumstances. Our author gives a fuller detail of it than we have yet seen, but many inferior movements must be understood to render it credible. In this narrative, the whole seems to have been concerted by count Bernsdorf, and carried into execution with the connivance of baron Schach Rathlow. We must suppose, however, that the king was prepared, and weak as was his mind, the little resolution that he possessed was already fixed. The whole consisted in the prince giving his opinion of the improper conduct of the *interior cabinet*, and demanding, with some firmness, that public business should be intrusted to himself, count Bernsdorf, and others of that party. This occurred the first time the prince was admitted a member of the privy council.—The life of Tycho Brahe, and the description
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of Uranienburg, affords nothing particularly new.—The description of general Claussen's works deserves to be extensively known.

‘ We embarked with the general upon a canal, which forms the communication between a small lake, and the Ifsefiord, or bay of the sea. This cut was begun in 1717, by command of Frederic the Fourth, in order to prevent the inundations of the lake from overflowing the royal estates; and from thence the place was called Fredericswerk. It was finished in 1720, but as the soil was a light sand, and the banks were cut in a perpendicular, and not in sloping direction, they fell down, and choaked the canal for a space of 500 feet. The general found it therefore necessary to new form the canal. He cut through several parts above 70 feet in depth, sloped the banks, covered them with earth, and in some places with sea-weed, fastened by means of the branches of fir, in order to prevent the sand from being drifted away. He then planted the slopes with willows, alders, elm, and oak, which he was obliged to water every day for a year. By these means the plants thrived, and now clothe the high banks to the edge of the water.

‘ In the same manner he has planted the adjacent country for the space of several miles, which was either a morass, or covered with drift sand. Frederic the Fourth had in vain endeavoured to fertilize this waste; for when he thought he had succeeded, the sand in one year drifted over many miles; and in some places, to the astonishing height of 80 feet. General Clausen, however, has succeeded, and has shewn that ingenuity is of more avail than the power and riches of absolute sovereignty. By fixing the sea-weed into the ground with the fir branches, he has rendered the soil stable, and has fertilised, at great labour and expence, a desert of several miles. Thus, a tract of country, which before only fed two and thirty cows, now yields, besides a large quantity of wood for fuel, in a favourable season, above 500 loads of hay.

‘ At the extremity of the canal we turned into another, formed entirely by the general. It was cut through quicksands, and the banks sloped and planted like those of the former. He employs at present only 340 men. All the workmen are his own peasants, who of course labour at a reduced price. He has built for their habitation rows of houses with rude stones washed with stucco, made of equal quantities of the pounded scoria of iron, of quick lime, and chalk. He has found from experience, that this stucco is extremely durable. His works consist of a foundery for casting cannon, both copper and iron, and balls, making salpetre and gunpowder, with bakehouses and breweries. He boasted, that in 1772 he furnished the army of Norway with artillery in three months; and at two months notice he could supply a 50 gun ship, with all her artillery, ammunition, and military stores. In shew-
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ing us his works, he laid claim to many new inventions. He saws and polishes cannon, by means of a mill so contrived as to answer various purposes; he saws off the waste pieces of copper from the cast cannon, which operation was the work of sixteen men for three days, and is now performed in an hour. By means of the same mill, and a kind of turning machine, he polishes the cannon in the manner of turning, which used to be done by the tedious operation of filing. He has invented a simple machine to twist the iron-hot bars together for anchors; a mode which he prefers, as stronger and better than the usual method of hammering the bars together. In his powder-mills he uses copper mortars, which are much safer than those of wood, as the latter, on being much used, become dry, and harbour the powder in the small crevices. He employs ranges of mortars in each row, or sixty-four in each powder-mill, wherein usually only twenty are used, and he beats only ten pounds of powder with each mortar. The expence of copper mortars is very considerable, as each mortar costs twenty pounds; but then the mills are certainly less liable to accident; and, if blown up, the mortars are again recovered.'

The rising and falling of Lake Wetter has been supposed to correspond with the movements of Lake Constance, and regular accounts of the alternations have been said to have been preserved. Our author, however, informs us, that the supposed correspondence on this subject is without foundation.

The late death of the king of Sweden will undoubtedly make whatever is advanced respecting this monarch interesting. Mr. Coxe adheres to his former opinion, that Sweden is a limited monarchy, and some of his observations on this subject we shall transcribe.

'The truth of the observation which I ventured to advance, that the king of Sweden is a limited and not an absolute monarch, though controverted by some authors, is still farther confirmed by the transactions of the diet which assembled in May 1786, in which several new regulations were settled, tending to limit the prerogative in the power of making, amending, and repealing laws, of removing persons from public employments, in the imposition of taxes, and the permanency of the revenue.

'In regard to the first point, the power of making, amending, and repealing laws, it had long been a question of dispute, whether a bill being proposed by the king, if two houses were for it, and two against it, the decision should be left to his majesty; but it was finally resolved by the states, and agreed to by the king, that under these circumstances the proposed bill should not take place; and that when three houses were of the same opinion, that opinion shall be considered as the sense of the states; all questions
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of privilege and taxation excepted, in which the unanimous consent of the four houses should be requisite.

‘ With respect to the second point, the power of removing persons from public employments, it was resolved that, whereas the king, in the second article of the form of government, promises not to ruin any man as to his life and honour, body or welfare, unless lawfully convicted and judged ; under the word *welfare* are included public offices and employments : no man, therefore, can be deprived of any civil, military, or ecclesiastical employment, without previous trial or judgment, according to the laws of the land, excepting those public officers of state, and committees mentioned in the form of government, who are liable, as before, to be removed by the king.

‘ As to the third point, it was decreed that the subsidies voted at the preceding diet to remain in force till the next meeting of the states, should now be continued for four years only, and that one per cent. should be deducted ; a deduction which, however small, was made in order to prove, that the grant of the extraordinary revenues depended entirely on the good pleasure of the diet, and that the revenue of the crown was by no means fixed and permanent. An important regulation, which almost renders it necessary for the king to summon the diet in four years, unless he can render (what is not possible) his fixed revenue equal to the public expenditure.’

To these our author adds some of the later alterations respecting the prerogative, which, however, show that Gustavus was hastening towards absolute power, and the transactions of the late diet at Gessle seem to prove it. These events appear also to invalidate another of Mr. Coxe's arguments, that the king's power must be a limited one, because he is not able to raise taxes without the consent of the states.

With respect to exports and imports, the former exceed the latter, and the ballance against England is in appearance immense, but it is in appearance only ; for, as we import from Sweden nothing but the raw materials, the employment of our manufacturers renders it even advantageous. If we pay, for instance, to Sweden annually 100l. without *any* return for iron, we receive for it, when manufactured, either in money or goods 10,000l. at the same time that the labour supports 5000 artists. This trade can never be injurious to a kingdom ; and it may be remarked, that the consumption of Swedish commodities is greatly lessened. Tar is partly supplied by the mineral oil, and the improvements in manufacturing our own iron have rendered Swedish iron less generally useful : in some works, however, it is still indispensable. The revenues of Sweden exceed a million and a half,

a half, and the *average* expences are estimated within that sum; though the real expences, even independent of war, exceed it. The history of the bank of Stockholm is not new, but it is more particular and perspicuous than any other account that we have seen.—In our author's journey through Sweden we find little added which will be of consequence to our readers. Lake Mæler, he observes, never appears a large expanse of water. It is broken by rocky islands, forming numerous bays, inlets, and smaller lakes. The banks are perpendicular, and covered with wood to the water's edge; but the uniform shapes of the firs and pines, almost the only trees, displease the eye. The works at Trolhætta are little advanced. The dangerous effects of the plan of carrying the canal so near the Gotha have been experienced, for the river has burst through the dyke, and would have destroyed the sluices if they had been constructed. The herrings appear on this coast during about three weeks; but, in that time, about 600,000 barrels are caught, of which 200,000 are salted, and sell from eight to ten shillings a barrel: the others, estimated at about one shilling and three-pence a barrel, are pressed for train oil. Marstrand, a secure port in a dangerous channel, was declared a free port during the American war, and flourished considerably, but the trade has since declined. Its freedom is, however, delusive; for nothing can be exported without paying the usual customs.

The account of the southern part of Norway contains more recent information. The country is craggy, abrupt, and mountainous, diversified with fertile and even delightful spots. In these respects it resembles Switzerland: the prospects and the meteorological phenomena seem to be very similar. The range of the thermometer is very extensive; in the summer having risen to 88° and in the winter fallen to —40: in general it is between 80° and —22°. The population of Norway is estimated in this volume too high, and the number is certainly under that assigned, viz. 750,000; for the principles on which our author calculates from the data are not applicable. Mr. Coxe is also mistaken in considering the Swedish and the Danish languages as dialects of the German. They are Gothic, and no farther connected with the German than being derived from the same stock. The Norwegian peasants are free, well clothed, well lodged, spirited, active, frank, open, and undaunted: they are said greatly to resemble the Swiss peasants. The soil, as being thin, is not calculated for the plough. Corn consequently is brought from the neighbouring states, and the chief employment of the Norway peasant is grazing. At Frederickshall our author had occasion to examine very minutely the accounts of the death of Charles XII.

and he seems to think, for good reasons, that he was really killed by a shot from the fort.—As a specimen of our author's descriptive talents, we shall transcribe his view of the scene near Christiana.

‘As we approached Christiana, the country was more wild and hilly, but still very fertile and agreeable; and about two miles from the town we came to the top of a mountain, and burst upon as fine a view as ever I beheld. From the point on which we stood in raptures, the grounds laid out in rich enclosures, gradually sloped to the sea; below us appeared Christiana, situated at the extremity of an extensive and fertile valley, forming a semicircular bend along the shore of a most beautiful bay, which being enclosed by hills, uplands, and forests, had the appearance of a large lake. Behind, before, and around, the inland mountains of Norway rose on mountains covered with dark forests of pines and fir, the inexhaustible riches of the north. The most distant summits were capped with eternal snow. From the glow of the atmosphere, the warmth of the weather, the variety of the productions, and the mild beauties of the adjacent scenery, I could scarcely believe that I was nearly in the 60th degree of northern latitude.’

Mr. Coxe, in his progress, visited the silver mines, which formerly produced annually 70,000*l.* but at present yield little more than 50,000*l.* The expences generally exceed the profits, and government gains only by the number of miners employed. The mines of cobalt, and the preparation of Prussian blue, are much more productive. The latter goes through 270 hands, and the number of men employed are 356. It is supposed that, at this period, it may produce to government a profit of 16,000*l.* a year.

From the frontiers of Norway our traveller returned to Stockholm, chiefly to examine the canal of Stroensheim and the mines of Dalecarlia. The roads are described as excellent; the hills covered with varied trees, and the lakes adorned with the most delightful verdure, generally ‘feathered with hanging wood to the margin of the water.’ The memoirs of Scheele, introduced, convey no new intelligence.

The canal is intended to unite the waters of the Lake Sodra Barken to those of Lake Freden, which communicates with the Mæler, for the purpose of carrying the iron and copper of Dalecarlia by water to Stockholm. The interval consists of numerous lakes and rivers, but the beds are rocky, and the course intersected with numerous cataracts. Our author has added an accurate plan of the intended canal; but his description is imperfect, on account of the badness of the weather.

C. R. N. AR. (V.) *July*, 1792.

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The expence has hitherto amounted to 25,000*l.* a sum procured with some difficulty; and half that sum, still wanting to complete it, we suspect, from some circumstances, will not be easily obtained.

Dalecarlia was the country of the great Gustavus; its mines were for a time his protection; and from them he burst forth, the father and deliverer of his country. The little historical memorials of the hero, added in this volume, are interesting; but they require an enthusiasm, which our readers may not possess, to render them so in general.—The copper-mine of Fahlun has been worked probably eight or nine hundred years. It is divided into 1200 shares, and each share is worth 37*l.* 10*s.* Six hundred miners are employed, and as many in the necessary or subsequent operations.

‘The morning after our arrival at Fahlun, we visited the mine, and descended as far as we could penetrate. The mouth or opening is extremely large, perhaps the largest in the world, being 1,200 feet in diameter, or near three quarters of an English mile in circumference: an immense chasm, gradually enlarged to its present size by the excavations and frequent downfalls of the rocks.

‘We descended this chasm by several flights of wooden steps, till we arrived at the entrance of the first subterraneous gallery; from whence the descent is extremely commodious, not by ladders, as is usual in mines, but down steps cut in the rock, and sloping so gently as to be practicable for the horses employed in bringing out the ore.

‘I will not describe the miners naked from their waist upwards, and compare them, as they are carrying in their hands small bundles of lighted slips of wood, to the Cyclops; nor will I dwell on the sublimity of those tremendous sounds formed by the explosion of the gunpowder; circumstances common to all mines, and not peculiar to this of Fahlun.

‘The galleries along which we passed are from six to ten feet high, and sufficiently spacious. The perpendicular depth of the mine from the top of the chasm is 1020 feet, and 720 from the entrance into the subterraneous gallery to the bottom. The commodious stair-case continued till we came to a deep pit, to which we descended by means of a wooden ladder, and afterwards by an iron ladder loosely suspended along the sides of the rock; stepping from thence to a wooden ladder, we reached the lowest part to which we could then arrive, as the lowest pit was full of water.

‘Our ascent, from its length, was long and tedious, and we employed near four hours before we again issued into day.’

The neighbouring iron mines of Danemora are deep excavations,

vations, and the traveller visits them suspended in a basket, by which he is let down from the surface. The ore gives from 30 to 70 per cent. of iron, generally about one-third of pure metal; and the mines yield about 12,000 ton of ore annually. This is the iron generally employed in our best steel-manufactories. The last remarkable place, mentioned in Sweden, is the fortress of Suenborg, near Helsingfors, built on some rocky islands in the Gulf of Finland. The works are of hewn granite, covered with earth, from six to ten feet thick, and forty-eight in height. On one of the islands is a dry dock, capable of containing ten frigates, hollowed in the solid rock, 800 feet long, 200 broad, and 14 feet deep. Other basons, &c. are in the neighbourhood, and the whole fortress will require 12,000 men. In 1784, it was far from being complete; nor was there a prospect, from the method of proceeding, that it would be soon finished. Money appeared wanting, and the late war must have increased the deficiency.

In Russia our author adds to his catalogue of houses and pictures. He finds, from more accurate information, that the population of Russia exceeds 26 millions and three quarters, that the revenues of Russia amount to nearly 7 million sterling, and that the Russian military establishment, exclusive of irregulars, amounts to more than 369 thousand men, though, from various circumstances, the empress can scarcely ever bring into the field more than 100,000 men.—There is a pretty extensive chapter on the congelation of mercury; but we can only transcribe the conclusions. These are,

‘ That the point of congelation of mercury is at 32 degrees below 0 on Reaumur.

‘ That there appears no difference in the point of congelation of purified and common mercury, except one preparation with antimony, which seems to congeal with a less degree of cold than all the others above mentioned.

‘ That in some circumstances mercury may be cooled below its freezing point without losing its fluidity, even as far as five and a half degrees, whilst the portion in which the bulbs of the thermometer is plunged becomes solid.

‘ That there appears nothing in these experiments to affect the credit of the mercurial thermometer, as an accurate instrument for measuring the degrees of heat, from the point of boiling water down to that of the congelation of mercury; but that no conclusion can be drawn from its motions below this point, as they depend on the contraction of the metal in a solid state, which ought to be carefully distinguished from what takes place whilst it preserved its fluidity; that therefore the ideas we have formed of the

cold obtaining in the habited countries near the poles, and the astonishing power of animals to resist it, must be erroneous, as they have been taken from the extraordinary descent of the mercury in the thermometer, which, we now know, is derived from the contraction of the mercury when frozen, and not from such an extraordinary degree of cold, as if it had taken place, must have destroyed the whole system of organised bodies.

‘ That we cannot, according to our present knowledge of the subject, assert, that there exists a much greater degree of cold than the point of the congelation of mercury, no other instrument having been employed to ascertain it than the mercurial thermometer, which is now proved of no authority below 32 degrees of Reaumur.

‘ But it appears, that a thermometer filled with highly-rectified spirits of wine preserves its fluidity in a cold of 35 degrees of Reaumur, or 47 of Fahrenheit, and probably in a greater; so that it may be employed in northern climates with more advantage than one filled with mercury.

‘ The surprising coincidence in the freezing of mercury congealed in Siberia by natural cold, with that effected by means of artificial cold, merits attention, as they both fix the freezing point of mercury at 32 of Reaumur; particularly, professor Laxman, in a late paper to the Imperial Academy, declares, that he found common mercury constantly become solid at 210 of de Lisle (32 of Reaumur), and that in the year 1782 it continued solid for two months together; and Dr. Pallas, in the third volume of his Travels, mentions the same phenomenon taking place about the same part of the scale.’

From some experiments made by M. Pallas, it appears that a certain state of body is necessary to the temporary cessation of the vital functions of torpid animals, which is connected with the diminution of their food.

Our author proceeds to Riga, and gives the history of different places, with anecdotes of general Brown. This history, with that of Courland, which follows, affords little that is new or interesting, and should not have made a part of the Travels. The whole was within the reach of a laborious compiler, who never stirred from his garret. Mr. Coxe adds little to his account of Poland; and that little, from the late revolution, and the present uncertain state of the kingdom, it will be useless to mention particularly. — In the Appendix is a geographical division of the Russian empire, with a list of the books quoted in these volumes.

A Translation

A Translation of the New Testament. By G. Wakefield, B. A.
3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Deighton. 1791.

BEFORE we enter upon the merits of this translation, it is necessary to let the author explain his plan :

‘ The chief rules (says Mr. Wakefield, pref. p. 2.) which I prescribed to myself in the execution of this work, were, to adopt the received version upon all possible occasions, and never to supersede it, unless some low, obsolete or obscure word, some vulgar idiom, some coarse or uncouth phrase, some intricate construction, some harsh combination of terms, or some misrepresentation of the sense, demanded an alteration. To aim at an entire *new translation*, or to admit *any* variation, but for the reasons now alledged, always appeared to me equally unnecessary and unwise. But a very small share of magnanimity was required to resist any temptation to innovate, that might arise from aspiring to the character of superior learning, discernment, and taste, by finding fault at every step, and fastidiously substituting *alteration*, only without *amendment*. If I have ever incurred this censure *eventually* myself, the motive was of another kind ; and I have not altered in a single instance from caprice or vanity, but simply from an intention to improve. *Use* has so far sanctified, if I may employ the term, our received version, that no translation, I am persuaded, essentially different from it, can ever be cordially relished, I do not say by the *generality*, but by readers of *exact taste* and *polished understandings*. Nor have I ever yet conversed with a single person, whose approbation I could wish to secure, of a different opinion in this respect.’

From this *exordium* it appears that the work before us is not a new translation, but a correction of the old. Now, as nearly two hundred years have elapsed since the publication of the old translation, and as in that time the English language has undergone an almost total change, both in words and in the construction of sentences, Mr. Wakefield has given us a motley style, in which quaintness and refinement are united. Of this his work affords abundant proofs. This is not consistent with any acknowledged principles of translation. As, however, Mr. Wakefield has laid it down as a maxim, that he is never unnecessarily to depart from the old translation, we shall follow his plan as he has formed it, and must in general allow that he has contributed many amendments of importance, and has every where demonstrated an intimate acquaintance with the original. His translation, though it may never come into general use, will be of great utility to biblical students.

We are sorry to find a considerable part of his Preface taken up with an acrimonious censure of Mr. Burgefs, Mr. Gibbon, and the bishop of St. David's. From the mention of his lordship, Mr. Wakefield takes occasion to entertain us with a flourish more worthy of Thomas Paine, or one of *his* disciples, than of a disciple of the meek and lowly Jesus, and one too who has lately been employed in translating his mild and benevolent doctrines.

' Learning and genius are deserting in numbers from the quarters of the *church*. The mists of tyranny, and the clouds of priestcraft, are daily dispersing before the beams of knowledge and the gales of liberty. Light is bursting from a thousand openings of the sky; and the standard of freedom is rearing throughout the universe. Weep, ye instruments of bigotry! tremble, ye oppressors of mankind! The desolation of your empire is at hand.'

Surely Mr. Wakefield did not mean this as a specimen of that *simplicity* of style for which he contends. But we are too well disposed towards his labour to object to the shibboleth of a faction with whom he may have connected himself.

Our author is of opinion that the words translated, *the New Testament*, and which he has preserved in compliance with common prejudice, should be rendered THE NEW COVENANT. To this we can have no objection. In John, ch. i. *λογος* is translated WISDOM, and this departure from the more general translation is supported by various authorities, in the notes. Some of those authorities are more satisfactory than others; but *λογος* will certainly bear this interpretation. In translating this whole passage, Mr. Wakefield is as much a trinitarian as the author of the old version; nor do we see, indeed, how it is possible to make sense of the passage without admitting the idea of *personality*.—In v. 5. he translates, and very properly, 'the darkness *hindered* it not.' This Evangelist paid but little regard to tenses.

We shall now extract the 11th chapter of the same Gospel, as a specimen of the whole, and, we trust, not an unfavourable one; we shall contrast it at the same time with the common version.

' (1.) Now Lazarus of Bethany, the town of Mary and Martha her sister, was sick. (2.) It was the same Mary, that anointed the Lord with perfumes, and wiped his feet with her hair, whose brother Lazarus was sick,

' 1. Now a certain man was sick *named* Lazarus of Bethany, the town of Mary and her sister Martha.

' 2. It was *that* Mary which anointed the Lord with ointment, and washed his feet with her

(3.) There-

(3.) Therefore these sisters sent unto *Jesus*, saying: Teacher, behold! thy friend is sick. (4.) When *Jesus* heard *this*, he said: This sickness is unto death only for the glory of God, that the son of God may be glorified thereby. (5.) Now *Jesus* loved Martha and her sister and Lazarus; (6.) and he remained, after hearing of the sickness of *Lazarus*, in the place where he was, two days; and afterwards said to his disciples: (7.) Let us go again into Judea. (8.) His disciples say unto him: Teacher, the Jews were seeking just now to stone thee; and art thou going thither again? (9.) *Jesus* answered: Are not there twelve hours in the day? If a man walk by day, he stumbleth not, because he seeth the light of this world: (10.) but, if he walk by night, he doth stumble, because the light is not in *the world*. (11.) After this, he said further to his disciples: Our friend Lazarus is asleep; but I am going to awaken him. (12.) Then said his disciples: Master, if he be asleep, he will do well. (13.) *Jesus* meant, that he was dead; but they supposed him to be speaking of customary sleep. (14.) Then said *Jesus* unto them plainly: (15.) Lazarus is dead: and I am glad, that I was not there, for your sakes, that ye may believe. But let us go to him. (16.) Then said Thomas, who was called Didymus, to his fellow-disciples: Must we also go, and expose ourselves to destruction with him?

hair, whose brother Lazarus was sick.

' 3. Therefore his sister sent unto him, saying, Lord, behold, he whom thou lovest is sick.

' 4. When *Jesus* heard *that*, he said, This sickness is not unto death, but for the glory of God, that the Son of God might be glorified thereby.

' 5. Now *Jesus* loved Martha, and her sister, and Lazarus.

' 6. When he had heard therefore that he was sick, he abode two days still in the same place where he was.

' 7. Then after that saith he to *his* disciples, Let us go into Judea again.

' 8. *His* disciples said unto him, Master, the Jews of late sought to stone thee; and goest thou thither again?

' 9. *Jesus* answered, Are there not twelve hours in the day? If any man walk in the day he stumbleth not, because he seeth the light of this world.

' 10. But if a man walk in the night, he stumbleth, because there is no light in him.

' 11. These things said he; and after that he saith unto them, Our friend Lazarus sleepeth: but I go that I may awake him out of sleep.

' 12. Then said his disciples, Lord, if he sleep, he shall do well.

' 13. Howbeit, *Jesus* spake of his death: but they thought that he had spoken of taking of rest in sleep.

' 14. Then said *Jesus* unto them plainly, Lazarus is dead.

' 15. And I am glad for your

' (17.) So

* (17.) So that Jesus went, and found that *Lazarus* had been now four days in the tomb. (18.) Now Bethany was nigh unto Jerusalem, about fifteen furlongs off: (19.) and many of the Jews had come to Martha and Mary, to comfort them concerning their brother. (20.) As soon as Martha heard, that Jesus was coming, she went to meet him; but Mary continued in the house. (21.) Then said Martha to Jesus: Teacher, if thou hadst been here, my brother had not died: (22.) but I know, that even now, whatsoever thou shalt ask of God, God will give *it* thee. (23.) Jesus saith unto her: Thy brother will rise up again. (24.) Martha saith unto him: I know, that he will rise up again at the resurrection in the last day. (25.) Jesus said unto her: I am the resurrection unto life. He, who believeth on me, though he be dead, will live: (26.) and no man living, who believeth on me, will die for ever. Dost thou believe this? (27.) She saith unto him: Yea, master: I believe that thou art the Christ, the son of God; *that thou art* he, who was to come into the world. (28.) And when she had said this, she went and called her sister Mary, saying to her secretly, The teacher is come, and asketh for thee. (29.) As soon as she heard *this*,

fakes that I was not there, to the intent ye may believe: nevertheless, let us go unto him.

* 16. Then said Thomas, which is called Didymus, unto his fellow disciples, Let us also go, that we may die with him.

* 17. Then when Jesus came, he found that he had laid in the ground four days already.

* 18. Now Bethany was nigh unto Jerusalem, about fifteen furlongs off:

* 19. And many of the Jews came to Martha and to Mary to comfort them concerning their brother.

* 20. Then Martha, as soon as she heard that Jesus was coming, went and met him: but Mary sat *still* in the house.

* 21. Then said Martha unto Jesus, Lord, if thou hadst been here, my brother had not died.

* 22. But I know that even now whatsoever thou wilt ask of God, God will give *it* thee.

* 23. Jesus saith unto her, Thy brother shall rise again.

* 24. Martha saith unto him, I know that he shall rise again in the resurrection at the last day.

* 25. Jesus said unto her, I am the resurrection and the life: he that believeth in me, though he were dead, yet shall he live:

* 26. And whosoever liveth, and believeth in me, shall never die. Believest thou this?

* 27. She saith unto him, Yea, Lord, I believe that thou art the Christ the son of God, which should come into the world.

* 28. And when she had so said, she went her way and called Mary her sister secretly, saying she

she riseth up quickly, and goeth to him. (30.) Now Jesus was not yet come to the village, but was at the place, where Martha met him. (31.) And, when the Jews, who were with Mary, in the house, comforting her, saw how hastily she rose up and went out, they followed her; saying, She is going to the tomb, to weep there. (32.) As soon as Mary was come where Jesus was, and saw him, she fell at his feet, and said unto him: Master, if thou hadst been here, my brother would not have died. (33.) When Jesus, therefore, beheld her weeping, and the Jews, who had come with her, weeping also; he earnestly constrained himself and struggled with his feelings, (34.) and said: Where have ye laid him? They say unto him: Teacher, come and see. (35.) Jesus wept. (36.) Then said the Jews: Behold! how he loved him! (37.) But some of them said: Could not this man, who opened the eyes of the blind, have also hindered his death? (38.) Then Jesus, endeavouring again to restrain himself, cometh to the tomb; which was a cave, and the stone was lying against it. (39.) Jesus saith: Take away the stone. Martha, the sister of the dead man, saith unto him; Master, by this time he stinketh: for this is his fourth day. (40.) Jesus saith unto her: Did I not tell thee, that, if thou wilt believe, thou shalt see the glory of God? (41.) So they took away the stone from the place, where the dead man was

ing. The Master is come, and calleth for thee.

‘ 29. As soon as she heard *that*, she arose quickly, and came unto him.

‘ 30. Now Jesus was not yet come into the town, but was in that place where Martha met him.

‘ 31. The Jews then which were with her in the house, and comforted her, when they saw Mary, that she arose up hastily and went out, followed her, saying, She goeth unto the grave to weep there.

‘ 32. Then when Mary was come where Jesus was, and saw him, she fell down at his feet, saying unto him, Lord, if thou hadst been here, my brother had not died.

‘ 33. When Jesus therefore saw her weeping, and the Jews also weeping which came with her, he groaned in the spirit, and was troubled.

‘ 34. And said, Where have ye laid him? They say unto him, Lord, come and see.

‘ 35. Jesus wept.

‘ 36. Then said the Jews, behold how he loved him.

‘ 37. And some of them said, Could not this man, which opened the eyes of the blind, have caused that even this man should not have died?

‘ 38. Jesus therefore again groaning in himself, cometh to the grave: it was a cave, and a stone lay upon it.

‘ 39. Jesus said, Take away the stone. Martha, the sister of him that was dead, saith unto him, Lord, by this time he stink-laid,

laid. And Jesus lifted up *his* eyes to heaven, and said: Father, I thank thee for hearing me: (42.) and I knew, that thou always hearest me; but because of this multitude about me I said this, that they may believe, that thou hast sent me. (43.) And, when he had thus spoken, he cried with a loud voice: Lazarus, come forth! (44.) And the dead man came forth, bound hand and foot with burial cloaths; and his face was bound about with a napkin. Jesus saith unto them: Set him free, and let him go.

(45.) Upon this many of those Jews, who had come to Mary, and saw what Jesus had done, believed on him. (46.) But some of them went to the Pharisees, and told them what Jesus had done. (47.) Then the chief priests and the Pharisees assembled a council, and said: What must we do? for this man is doing many miracles. (48.) If we let him alone thus, all will believe on him, and the Romans will come and destroy both this temple and our nation. (49.) But one of them, *named* Caiaphas, who was high-priest that year, said unto them: Are ye so entirely without understanding, as not to consider,

eth: for he hath been *dead* four days.

' 40. Jesus saith to her, Said I not unto thee, that, if thou wouldest believe, thou shouldest see the glory of God?

' 41. Then they took away the stone *from the place* where the dead was laid. And Jesus lifted up *his* eyes, and said, Father, I thank thee that thou hast heard me.

' 42. And I knew that thou hearest me always: but because of the people which stand by I said *it*, that they may believe that thou hast sent me.

' 43. And when he thus had spoken, he cried with a loud voice, Lazarus, come forth.

' 44. And he that was dead came forth, bound hand and foot with grave clothes: and his face was bound about with a napkin. Jesus saith unto them, Loose him, and let him go.

' 45. Then many of the Jews which came to Mary, and had seen the things which Jesus did, believed on him.

' 46. But some of them went their ways to the Pharisees, and told them what things Jesus had done.

' 47. ¶ Then gathered the chief priests and the Pharisees a council, and said, Who do we? for this man doeth many miracles.

' 48. If we let him thus alone, all *men* will believe on him: and the Romans shall come and take away both our place and nation.

' 49. And one of them *named* Caiaphas, being the high priest that same year, said unto them, Ye know nothing at all.

(50.) that

(50.) that it is better for one to die for this people, than for the whole nation to be destroyed?

(51.) (And this he said not of his own accord, but, being high-priest that year, he prophesied, that Jesus would die for that nation: (52.) and not for that nation only, but that he might gather together the children of God also, which were scattered abroad, into one place.) (53.) So from that day they consulted how they might put *Jesus* to death. (54.) Jesus, therefore, walked no more openly among the Jews: but departed thence into a country near the wilderness, to a city called Ephraim; and continued there with his disciples.

' (55.) When the passover of the Jews was at hand, many went up to Jerusalem out of that country before the passover, to purify themselves. (56.) And *the people* were seeking Jesus, and saying to each other as they stood in the temple: What think ye? that he will not come to this festival? (57.) Now both the chief priests and the Pharisees had given orders, that if any one knew where *Jesus* was, he should discover *him*, that they might lay hold on him.'

' 50. Nor consider that it is expedient for us, that one man should die for the people, and that the whole nation perish not.

' 51. And this spake he not of himself; but being high priest that year he prophesied that Jesus should die for that nation.

' 52. And not for that nation only, but that also he should gather together in one the children of God that were scattered abroad.

' 53. Then from that day forth they took counsel together for to put him to death.

' 54. Jesus therefore walked no more openly among the Jews; but went thence unto a country near to the wilderness into a city called Ephraim, and there continued with his disciples.

' 55. And the Jews passover was nigh at hand: and many went out of the country up to Jerusalem before the passover to purify themselves.

' 56. Then sought they for Jesus, and spake among themselves as they stood in the temple, What think ye, that he will not come to the feast?

' 57. Now both the chief priests and the Pharisees had given a commandment that if any man knew where he were, he should shew *it*, that they might take it.'

The phrase 'struggle with his feelings,' is a great departure from simplicity, and Mr. Wakefield himself seems dissatisfied with it. *Kypie* and *Paſſe* are rendered by *Teacher* and *Master* indiscriminately, for the sake of variety. But there would have been no harm in avoiding this variety, as *Master* (unless where *School* is prefixed) and *Teacher* have very different meanings in our language. These, however, are small blemishes; and there is, upon the whole, much more to commend than disapprove in Mr. Wakefield's translation.

In the notes, which are very copious, and show Mr. Wakefield to be an accomplished Greek scholar, we often encounter a positiveness of opinion, and a petulant superiority; which we regret. That Mr. Wakefield, of all men, ought to have preserved a degree of diffidence, may be proved from the following circumstance. About three years ago he published 'A new Translation of those Parts only of the New Testament, which are wrongly translated in our Common Version.' Of this pamphlet we gave a favourable account in our Review, Vol. lxxviii. p. 355, *et seq.* and at the same time suggested certain improvements, a few of which Mr. Wakefield has adopted in the present translation; but nothing is so singular as the very great difference between some parts of that translation and the corresponding parts of the present. We shall give a few examples.

John xix. 11. Mr. Wakefield in his translation 1789, renders 'unless I had been given up to thee from above'—In the present, according to our suggestion, he restores the true meaning 'unless *it* had been given thee from above.'

In Acts vii. 38, *λογια ζωης* formerly rendered 'the oracles of life' are here 'the doctrines of life'—Mat. vi. 27. is improperly rendered in both; the metaphors are confounded without any reason; and this is one example of departure from the common translation unnecessarily. The following instances of difference between Mr. Wakefield's *two* translations we shall place in columns.

' Translation of 1789.

' Matt. v. 14. Ye are the light of the world. As a city set on a hill cannot be hid: *and* as men do *not* light a LAMP, and put it under *the* bushel, but upon *the* STAND, *that it may shine* to all in the house: so let your light shine before men.

' Matt. v. 34. Be not anxious, therefore, about the morrow; for the morrow will be anxious about the things of itself. Let each day be satisfied with its own evil.'

' Matt. viii. 11. Shall sit down to meat.'

' Matt. xviii. 1. Which was the greatest.'

' Translation of 1792.

' Ye are the light of the world. *As* a city, set on an hill, cannot be hid: and, as a lamp is not lighted to be put under the bushel, but on the stand, and it shineth to all in the house: so let your light shine before men.

' Be not therefore anxious about the morrow: for the morrow will have trouble of its own. Sufficient for each day is the evil thereof.'

' Will sit down at table.'

' Which would be the greatest.'

' Mark i.

' Mark i. 13. Was tempted by Satan.'

' Was tried by Satan.'

' Mark xv. 44. If he had indeed died some time since.'

' If he had been some time dead.'

' Mark iii. 21. And when his relations heard this, they went out to secure him: for they said: he is rash, even to madness.'

' And when his own family heard of it, they went out to secure him: for some had told them, that he was gone out.'

' Luke xxi. 25, 26. Distress of nations, perplexed by a noise and motion of the sea; men's hearts failing them through a fearful expectation of those things, which are coming on the world.'

' Distress of nations, perplexed by a noise and tossing of the sea: men expiring through a fearful expectation of those things that are coming on the world.'

' Luke xxii. 29, 30. And, as my Father hath granted unto me a kingdom, I grant unto you to eat and drink at my table in this my kingdom.'

' And I covenant with you for a kingdom, as my Father covenanted with me: that ye shall eat and drink at my table in my kingdom.'

We might multiply instances of such changes of opinion; but the above will answer our purpose. Diffidence may justly be expected from those 'who are given to change.'

This work is elegantly printed, but would be much more convenient if the chapters had been numbered at the top of every page.

Colony Commerce; or, Reflections on the Commercial System, as it respects the West India Islands, our Continental Colonies, and the United States of America. With some Remarks on the present high Price of Sugar, and the Means of reducing it. By A. C. Brown. 8vo. 2s. Faulder. 1792.

SINCE the æra in which Rome began to send her numerous sons to distant colonies, colonization has engaged the speculations of philosophers, and the more active minds of statesmen, without the subject being elucidated by the theories of the former, or the experience of the latter. In former ages, colonies were chiefly military, to subdue or preserve the obedience of the natives; in the middle æras, they were directed by avarice, to obtain the more precious metals; and, of late years, they were designed to monopolise commerce. The views of the ambitious princes were, in some degree,

degree, and for a short time, realised: the others have wholly failed, and it is no longer a subject of doubt, that Spain has enriched, by her American dominions, every nation of Europe but herself; and that England, by the extension of her American possessions, has been greatly impoverished. The chief argument of politicians in favour of colonies has been the monopoly of commerce; and, as Mr. Brown justly observes, we have defended for a series of years the colonies of North America, to purchase from them what we could buy as cheap elsewhere, and to sell them what we could, with a less expence, make even the objects of competition in every European nation.

We mean not to commend the whole of Mr. Campbell Brown's work; for there is an evident bias, which, at first perhaps, misled himself, and will, unless guarded against, mislead his readers. In general it contains many judicious observations and accurate reflections. Among these, though trite, the position deserves to be inculcated, that trade finds best its own level, and is discouraged by regulations, even to appearance the most judicious. The bias we have mentioned appears so early as the fourth page, by a criticism on Dr. Smith's *Wealth of Nations*.

' He seems to have been led into this mistake by the terms he made use of in the profound analytical reasonings, by which he convinced himself of the errors of the system which he attacked. He had familiarized himself to the use of "active capital;" "capital which employed the industry of numbers;" "returns which gave employment to industry;" and from using these terms, he came at last to consider all property, not only as more useful when frequently returned in business, but useful just in proportion to this frequency of return. He esteems a home trade as best, because the returns are most frequent; and for the same reason, a foreign trade of consumption as better than a foreign carrying trade. That a capital which was out a twelvemonth in foreign trade, might have been four times as valuable (to the public) if employed in a home trade, where it could have been returned four times in the year. This reasoning, if conclusive, in those cases, would lead us to determine, that the capital of a banker, which perhaps is returned every month, is twelve times as useful as that of a grazier, which is returned but once in the year. In truth, they are, just equally advantageous, and both just as profitable as other home trades, and all of them just as profitable as foreign trades, when the emoluments are regulated in due proportion to the risque, and to every other disadvantage, one of which certainly is the length of time the capital is out.'

If

If the secrets of the banking-house could be properly explored, our author's supposition might be found true. At present it is sufficient to observe, that the advantage from the frequent returns is in some degree compensated by the expences, and the small proportion of the discounts above the interest that could otherwise be procured for money.

In the other part of this paragraph, the position of Dr. Smith seems not to be admitted, because the West India islands, our author's 'darling' object, will not admit of frequent and quick returns. He shows, that the American colonies were never of such advantage to Britain as to compensate the expences; and that, in general, they fished, laboured, and built ships for themselves. They were called *our* fisheries, *our* seamen: the fiction lay in the appropriation. In the whole of this discussion, he is accurate and well-founded: even the new government of Upper Canada shares his censure, and the remarks on this subject deserve great attention.

Another position militates greatly against a subject, in which our rulers and legislators may have acted from prejudice, we mean in the preference to British-built ships. This is a point that involves varied and extensive considerations; one which we confess ourselves not sufficiently informed to discuss. Mr. Brown contends, that the expence of building ships in Britain increases the freight in a greater proportion than the labour is advantageous; that there is no danger of having, from the unavoidable repairs of a more numerous shipping, which, if this law were repealed, we probably should have, a sufficient number of ship-wrights to supply the national dock-yards; and that every advantage would be gained by extending the clauses to British *owned* ships. Part of this reasoning is undoubtedly fallacious, and probably, on the whole, the author is wrong.—The defence of the West-India planters, the opposition to the measures of taking off the drawback on West India-sugar, and importing East-India sugar, are ingenious, but not sufficiently forcible to admit of our unqualified acquiescence.—We shall conclude this article with our author's short summary of his proposals.

' In proposing to withdraw, as far as the dignity and justice of government will admit, our expences in the northern colonies,—to open the British navigation to all British *owned* ships navigated by British seamen, without regard to where they were built,—to permit the West-India Islands to receive their supplies in vessels of the country of which those supplies were the produce,—and in proposing to admit, at least on more liberal terms, the corn and salted provisions of foreign countries, we have urged no expensive

penfive projects, no farther monopoly or restraint on any branch of commerce,—no meafure which can weaken our navy or leffen our navigation. We have indeed, propofed to abolifh fome restraints, and fome very ftrong monopolies, which circumftances alone will probably one day (when the fubject is more underftood) be a fufficient recommendation to any propofal, to give it weight.’

New Travels in the United States of America. Performed in 1788. By J. P. Briffot de Warville. Translated from the French. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Jordan. 1792.

WE believe that America is little known in England, and that the author of ‘Colony Commerce’ has judged rightly, in general, refpecting the utility and importance of colonies.—Great Britain having, in confequence of the united efforts of American and French armies, been obliged to relinquifh the conteft in the late war, could not, confiftently with her dignity, at once forget animofity and conciliate friendfhip. Trade, however, will always find its level; and what governments decline openly to permit, mutual wants and mutual interefts will more filently effect. We know not that the events are materially altered, by the pretended hauteur of adminiftration, nor that America has been more active in invention, becaufe no envoy has been formally appointed. Whether lord Sheffield’s reasoning was correct, or otherwife, had little influence on the merchant whose confignments were regulated by his orders, and his fpeculations by information which he could better depend on. In fhort, fuch is the afpiring fpirit of man, that he will not owe to others what may be performed without affiftance; nor could it be expected that, among the varied refources which the vaft continent of America afforded, the inhabitants would long continue blind to its different advantages.—Thefe obfervations were fuggested by the violent remarks of the tranflator. The author, in his Preface, is violent in another way; and he endeavours to fhew that ‘a people without morals may acquire liberty, but without morals, they cannot preferve it.’ Unfortunately morals are only, in his opinion, to be preferved among farmers: they muft appear with diftinguifhed fplendor in America; and, as in France, there are not more than two acres to each perfon, he feems to hint that the liberty of his own country will be loft for want of a more extenfive territory. This whimfical idea, fo common in the numerous publications of France, is not more apparently abfurd than the following pofition, that ‘the lefs active and powerful the government, the more active, powerful, and happy is the fociety.’ We fhall leave it to the

consideration of our readers, adding only, that it borrows its splendor and importance chiefly from its form : when analysed and examined, the whole force is lost. The remarks on travelling, and the conduct of the author's countrymen in America, are just.

The Letters of advice from M. Claviere are excellent : they display much judgment, wisdom, and knowledge. We might, perhaps, except his Utopian scheme of a republic ; but even this is conducted with so much propriety, that, averse as we are to visionary plans, we have been captivated with his sketch. It can never indeed be realised ; and, as the Letters were written previous to the late revolution in France, modern reformers need not go so far, for a more equal state of society. Our author adds his views, in substance resembling those of M. Claviere, ultimately resting on this object to examine the effects of liberty on the character of men, of society, and of government.

M. Warville goes from Havre, and finds the merchants there complaining of the commercial treaty with England. His source of consolation is curious and uncommon. 'The consequences of the treaty, he observed, joined with other circumstances, would lead to a free constitution, which, taking away the shackles from industry and commerce, would enable them to repair their losses.' It yet remains to be seen how far this may be true. To us it appears, that the treaty was rather owing to the expanding seeds of the revolution than the contrary. The merchants at Havre are dealers in negro slaves ; and M. Warville owns, that he was unsuccessful in his efforts to convince them of the iniquity of the commerce.

Our author proceeds to Boston, from thence by land to New York, and adds the account of another journey by way of Providence, and from thence by water to the same capital. In these tours, he is almost always captivated by simplicity and talents in the people, by beauty, fertility, the appearance of calm content and rural felicity in the country. The marquis de Chatellux and M. Crevecoeur saw irregularities and imperfections ; but to our author they were no longer visible. The shocks of the cart without springs lost their inconvenience, because he was in a land of liberty. Let us examine the picture with more unprejudiced eyes. The scattered state of population in a country, where agriculture forms the chief employment, is not without its peculiar advantages. Simplicity of manners is one of these ; morality, while communication is not too frequent nor too easy, another. The retired farm embosomed in trees gives the idea of calm content, and is *sometimes* the residence of unassuming happiness. But the same

causes narrow the mind, prevent its faculties from expanding, and generally are the nurseries of prejudice, often of sullen gloom or interested schemes. The Americans have undoubtedly simplicity of character; but, from these causes, (we speak of them collectively) are not men of extensive information: they are rather cool and penetrating than active or ingenious: in general, the careful steady farmers, seldom the pleasing companions or the able reasoners. Circumstances will, however, change the characters; and, as many have already been distinguished for their ingenuity, as manufactures have begun to flourish, there is little doubt of the mind expanding on the Western continent, and reaching in time to the highest exertions of European genius. America will only suffer by premature, exaggerated, and injudicious praise.

Our author, at Boston, sees the chief actors, both of the civil and military department, in the revolution. Simplicity of manners is the constant source of his praise: cool modest silence always calls forth his panegyric: to have descended to the class of citizens, is to him a degree of heroism unparalleled. Let us once for all observe, that going from France, when aristocracy had not lost its splendor, at a time when the sentiments of general equality began to expand, it is not surprising that the difference should strike our author's view, or captivate his fancy. If he had visited England in his progress, he would not have found the variation so striking: the general equality, the silent reflection, and above all the descending from the office of minister or legislator, the command of armies, or the triumph of naval victories, would not have appeared so singular or surprising. The English reader sees, with astonishment, commendations for what he thinks common actions, and can scarcely admire in an American what he is familiar with at home. The objects which he meets with in his journeys, we have already sketched; and we need only add, that M. de Warville reprehends M. de Chatellux for his representation of the exorbitant charges of the inns, and for the erroneous account of colonel Wadsworth. The military hero admits the charge of carrying on the Guinea trade, but 'professes his abhorrence of the slave-trade.' Some account of Mr. Jay's conduct we shall transcribe.

* The following anecdote will give an idea of the firmness of this republican: at the time of laying the foundation of the peace in 1783, M. de Vergennes, actuated by secret motives, wished to engage the ambassadors of Congress to confine their demands to the fisheries, and to renounce the western territory; that is, the vast and fertile country beyond the Alleganey mountains. This minister required particularly, that the independence of America should

should not be considered as the basis of the peace; but, simply, that it should be conditional. To succeed in this project, it was necessary to gain over Jay and Adams. Mr. Jay declared to M. de Vergennes, that he would sooner lose his life than sign such a treaty; that the Americans fought for independence; that they would never lay down their arms, till it should be fully consecrated; that the court of France had recognised it, and that there would be a contradiction in her conduct, if she should deviate from that point. It was not difficult for Mr. Jay to bring Mr. Adams to this determination; and M. de Vergennes could never shake his firmness.

‘Mr. Jay, was equally immoveable by all the efforts of the English minister, whom M. de Vergennes had gained to his party. He proved to him, that it was the interest of the English themselves, that the Americans should be independent, and not in a situation which should render them dependent on their ally. He converted him to this sentiment; for his reasoning determined the court of St. James’s. When Mr. Jay passed through England to return to America, lord Shelbourne desired to see him. Accused by the nation of having granted too much to the Americans, he desired to know, in case he had persisted not to accord to the Americans the western territory, if they would have continued the war? Mr. Jay answered, that he believed it, and that he should have advised it.’

The journey from Boston to New York, by way of Providence, contains some facts little known, but the changes that have since taken place do not render them important. Newport, a flourishing place during the war, was at that time in a great degree deserted. The idlers stood in groups; the shops were imperfectly and poorly furnished; the houses falling; and rags only to be seen hanging on the people, or fencing out the cold by being stuffed through broken windows. The distress of the state of Rhode Island is owing, in our author’s opinion, to the paper-money, to the magistrates depending too much on the people, and the too frequent election of members of the legislature. Thus good sense will discover truth by experience, though veiled for a time by the medium of prejudice. This, he adds, does not argue against a representative democracy, but against a pure democracy, for a representation of six months is but a government ‘by the people themselves.’ This is not, however, an argument but an evasion; and it would be easy to show that the reasons alledged in favour of annual parliaments, will apply to a representation for half that time: indeed, while the session of parliament, in this kingdom, sel-

dom exceeds five months, the question scarcely differs even in words.

New York is described in flattering colours, and its population is said to have increased since 1773 from 148,124 to 219,996, the number in 1786. Provisions are dear, luxury is too abundant, and the simplicity of manners too much corrupted for our author's taste. It is however American, and must still be excellent. Every page shows that the French and Americans disagree, unless they are, like our author, determined to be pleased with every thing. He meets with Mr. Maddison and Mr. Hamilton, two young republicans, who are said to have been eminently active in different political services. The paper-money is represented as a great inconvenience, and an obstacle to the prosperity of those states which continued at that time to establish it as a legal tender. We shall transcribe two conversations on this subject.

‘ I saw, in this journey, many inconveniences resulting from this fictitious money. It gives birth to an infamous kind of traffic, that of buying and selling it, by deceiving the ignorant ; a commerce which discourages industry, corrupts the morals, and is a great detriment to the public. This kind of stock-jobber is the enemy to his fellow citizens. He makes a science of deceiving ; and this science is extremely contagious. It introduces a general distrust. A person can neither sell his land, nor borrow money upon it ; for sellers and lenders may be paid in a medium which may still depreciate, they know not to what degree it may depreciate. A friend dares not trust his friend. Instances of perfidy of this kind have been known, that are horrible. Patriotism is consequently at an end, cultivation languishes, and commerce declines. How is it possible, said I to Mr. Livingston, that a country, so rich, can have recourse to paper money ? New Jersey furnishes productions in abundance to New York and Philadelphia. She draws money, then, constantly from those places ; she is their creditor. And shall a creditor make use of a resource which can be proper only for a miserable debtor ? How is it that the members of your legislature have not made these reflections ? The reason of it is very simple, replied he : at the close of the ruinous war, that we have experienced, the greater part of our citizens were burdened with debts. They saw, in this paper money, the means of extricating themselves ; and they had influence enough with their representatives to force them to create it.—But the evil falls at length on the authors of it, said I ; they must be paid themselves, as well as pay others, in this same paper ; and why do they not see that it dishonours their country, that it ruins all kinds of honest industry, and corrupts the morals of the people ? Why do they not repeal this *legal tender* ? A strong interest op-

poses

poses it, replied he, of stock jobbers and speculators. They wish to prolong this miserable game, in which they are sure to be the winners, though the ruin of their country should be the consequence. We expect relief only from the new constitution, which takes away from the states the power of making paper money. All honest people wish the extinction of it, when silver and gold would re-appear; and our national industry would soon repair the ravages of the war.'

'You wish for facts, said one of them, who had existed in this country for three years: I will give you some.—I say that the country is a miserable one. In New Jersey, where we now are, there is no money, there is nothing but paper. The money is locked up, said Mr. Franklin. Would you have a man be fool enough to exchange it for depreciated rags? Wait till the law shall take the paper from circulation.—But you cannot borrow money on the best security. I believe it, said Mr. Franklin; the lender fears to be paid in paper.—These facts prove not the scarcity of money, but the prudence of those who hold it, and the influence that debtors have in the legislature.'

The American farmers are described with all the warmth of our author's partiality; but they are, in general, respectable, and their real situation and merits we have already endeavoured to ascertain. At Philadelphia, our author meets with the Quakers, and gives a good account of the manners of that very respectable sect; a sect in which, more than in any other, cool sound reason prevails. M. de Warville is, however, wrong in adducing the example of the Quakers in opposition to the maxim, that pomp and show are necessary in religious worship. These are only calculated for the common people, and the Quakers are generally in the middle ranks. There are but few who are poor, and unfortunately these are not the most exemplary in their conduct. The house of correction, and the hospital for lunatics, are described; but, as usual, the author brings in the ideas derived from his observation in France to justify his profound admiration of the management. Had he visited the English charitable and political institutions, he would not have found any thing peculiarly new or so highly interesting in the hospital and asylum at Philadelphia.—The *Life of Benjamin Franklin* is written with the same eager warmth, but with respect to Franklin, warmth cannot be misapplied, and panegyric cannot sully, from its excess, what it intended to praise. Political rancour is no more; and we can join with M. Warville in commending the genius, the industry, the warm active benevolence, and the spirited ingenuity of this extraordinary man.

The invention of the steam-boat, or the method of impelling a boat against wind and tide, by the powerful action of oars impelled by the irresistible expansion of steam, promises to be highly useful: it is still, however, incomplete. The society of agriculture and the library of Philadelphia engage also our author's attention. The Hessian fly, it is said, lays its eggs in the stalk of the corn, so that there is no danger of importing it with the grain. The market of Philadelphia differs little from an English one. The farm of the Frenchman is described particularly; but we are led to distrust our author's representations in general, when he excepts only vineyards from the attempts in which America may certainly succeed. The French farmer,

—— is attentive to the subject of meteorology; it is he that furnishes the meteorologic tables published every month in the *Columbian Magazine*: they are certainly the most exact that have appeared on this continent. He thinks there is no great difference between the climate here and that of Paris: that here, the cold weather is more dry; that the snow and ice remain but a short time; that there never passes a week without some fair days; that there falls more rain here than in France, but that it rarely rains two days successively; that the heat is sometimes more intense, that it provokes more to sweat and to heaviness; finally, that the variations are here more frequent and more rapid.

The following is the result of the observations of this Frenchman for four years:—The greatest cold in this part of Pennsylvania, is commonly from ten to twelve degrees below the freezing point of Reaumur's thermometer: the greatest heats are from twenty-six to twenty-eight degrees above: the mean term of his observations for four years, or the temperature, is nine degrees and six tenths: the mean height of the barometer is twenty-nine inches ten lines and one tenth, English measure: the prevailing wind is north-north-west. In the year there are fifteen days of thunder, seventy-six days of rain, twelve days of snow, five days of tempest with rain; these eighty-one days of rain, with those of snow, give thirty-five inches of water, French measure. The sky is never obscured three days together. The country is very healthy, and extremely vegetative. Wheat harvest is from the 8th to the 12th of July. No predominant sickness has been remarked during these four years.'

The journey of the two Frenchmen to the banks of the Ohio, which, though on the whole unfortunate, was yet attended with the addition to our knowledge, that the banks of this vast river appeared singularly fertile, is followed by a pretty long account of the state of the blacks in America, and a history

tory of the efforts made to abolish the slave-trade. Our author seems to judge too favourably of the genius and capacity of negroes. As natural historians, we consider them as a different species; and, so far as we can at present observe, of an inferior order; but it will be impossible to determine accurately their merits, till an equal number shall have had the chance of proper instruction. Industry may supersede genius, or their genius, slow in expanding, may acquire additional force: we can only give an opinion from the present appearances, which are certainly unfavourable to the mental talents of negroes. The plan to restore the blacks to Africa is a benevolent one. It is now on its trial; but the latest accounts that we have seen, are not favourable to it. One of the means of abolishing slavery is the cultivation of the sugar-maple; but, on this subject, our author's eagerness to prove too much make even his most probable account suspicious. On this subject too, we must wait for the information of attentive experiment. America will undoubtedly supply herself with sugar from the maple; but, to attempt the same plan in the more expensive lands of Europe, is a scheme wildly absurd.

The description of Philadelphia is not new, and the colouring is sometimes too high. Books are not so frequently printed in that capital as the author represents: we *suspect* that the women are not so faithful as he supposes; and that the poets, for those that we have seen are very different, do not carry away the palm from those of Europe. Averse as Mr. Warville is to great towns, we are not surprised to find that he thinks Philadelphia already too large: its population from 1760 to 1786 increased, it seems, from 31,667 to 66,925. The dispensary, the institution for the relief of prisoners, &c. are described with applause. But these are of English origin, and the praise of the plans is therefore due to this country. That the compensation offered to the family of William Penn was not paid more regularly, though in itself a very inadequate one, calls forth even M. Warville's reprehension: we hope, for the honour of human nature, that the stigma is by this time removed.

The account of the progress of cultivation in Pennsylvania is not new: we have noticed it in other publications, and have been since led to distrust its accuracy. The description of the climate and diseases of Pennsylvania offers nothing particularly interesting. The fanciful observations of Meyers Fisher, that the activity of the inhabitants may be measured by the rapidity of the rivers, deserves to be mentioned, but not to be commented on. He sees the dulness and indecision of the Virginians, in the slow current of the Potowmac, and the activity

of the New Englanders in the rapid currents of the northern rivers.—Our author is puzzled to account for the frequency of consumptions in America, and flies to different causes, according as they are differently applicable, and shows, on the whole, a total ignorance of the subject. America is certainly more healthy than in the former years; but the long chapter on longevity and the probabilities of life, proves only that proper observations have not yet been made on this subject. The little to be depended on, we have already noticed in our review of the Boston Transactions.

The prisons of Philadelphia, the manners and general principles of the Quakers, a subject sufficiently understood in this kingdom, with a reply to those who have censured them, follow, and take up a disproportioned share of the author's attention. He adds an account of his journey to Mount Vernon, the seat of general Washington, who with true Roman dignity has retired to his farm; but of the general and his house every thing has been often said: in fact, either subject is a very limited one. Maryland is described as by no means in a flourishing state, and Virginia seems not to have taken those advantages of its favourable situation, which it might have done. M. Warville describes the commerce of tobacco, as well as the tobacco notes, or notes issued on the credit of a given quantity of tobacco lodged in the warehouses, and recommends to France the abolition of farming and monopolies, in order to rival England in the trade. At present, the credit of France is not sufficiently high to enable her to avail herself of this advice, and we hope that administration will view her conduct with a watchful eye. Our author meant to have visited the valley watered by the Shedamore, which communicates with the Potowmack, but was prevented, and contents himself with describing its great commercial advantages, from the reports of others: M. Warville is sufficiently credulous, and his informers seem not to have been deficient in the arts of exaggeration. The journey from Boston to Portsmouth, the capital of New Hampshire, furnishes nothing remarkable.

The present debt of the United States is estimated at 79,124,464 dollars, including the separate public debts of each state, and deducting the principal and interest paid in December 1790. It may be estimated at about sixteen millions sterling; the interest is less than one million, and the public expences about 110,000 pounds sterling. The secret circumstances, in the history of this debt, we may be allowed to transcribe.

§ If the secret history of this debt contracted in France were pub-

published, it would discover the origin of many fortunes which have astonished us. It is certain, for instance, that M. de Vergennes disposed of these loans at pleasure, caused military stores and merchandise to be furnished by persons attached to him, and suffered not their accounts to be disputed. It is a fact, that in his accounts with Congress, there was one million of livres that he never accounted for, after all the demands that were made to him. It is likewise a fact, that out of the forty-seven millions pretended to be furnished in the above articles by France to Congress, the employment of twenty one-millions is without vouchers. Many fortunes may be made from twenty-one millions.

‘ M. Beaumarchais, in a memoir published two years ago, pretends to be the creditor of congress for millions. I have, in my hands, a report made to congress by two respectable members, in which they prove, that he now owes congress 742,413 livres, and a million more, if the wandering million above-mentioned, has fallen into his hands. These reporters make a striking picture of the manoeuvres practised to deceive the Americans.

‘ Will not the national assembly cause some account to be rendered of the sums squandered in our part of the American war? or rather the sums which, instead of going to succour those brave strugglers for liberty, went to adorn the bed-chambers of an actress? Adeline did more mischief to the Americans, than a regiment of Hessians. Where are the accounts of her favourite Veymerange? Why has not M. Neckar drawn the impenetrable veil which screens them from the public? And he himself, has he nothing to answer for the choice he made of corrupted, weak, and wicked agents, and the facility with which he ratified their accounts?

‘ Mr. Morris and Dr. Franklin have been censured in the American papers on account of these robberies. I am far from joining in the accusations against the latter; but I could wish he had given positive answers to the writer under the signature of *Centinel*.’

The trade of the United States, including the imports and exports, is imperfectly detailed. We shall give no abstract of it, because the whole rests on an uncertain footing, and many appearances of exaggeration are conspicuous. The trade of America to China and to Nootka Sound we suspect also to be magnified; and, when plenty has lessened the value of ginseng, the American trade in China will probably fail. America may undoubtedly become the carrier of the whole world, when the wealth, the ingenuity, the spirit, and the marine of Britain are no more. Then only will M. Warville's prophecy be realised. That Nootka Sound is not far distant from the head
waters

waters of the Mississippi, that the falls of Nicaragua may be avoided, that an American race may fix there, and convey the furs of the western coast along the rivers and lakes of America, are the reveries of a wandering imagination. It is only within the bounds of possibility, when nations now all-powerful are vanished, when the mighty names of these days are no longer heard. Another revolution is probably still nearer. Beyond the Alleganey mountains a powerful and hardy race are already established: the Mississippi cannot long remain closed, and the Spanish dominions of Louisiana at this moment tremble. With whom will these western colonists associate? We can already tell our author—with the English of Upper Canada.

The Tears of St. Margaret: also, Odes of Condolence to the High and Mighty Musical Directors, on their Downfall. To which is added, the Address to the Owl. Likewise, Mrs. Robinson's Handkerchief, and Judge Buller's Wig; a Fable. Also, the Churchwarden of Knightsbridge; or, the Feast on a Child. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1792.

WE have more than once had occasion to observe, that the sun of Pindar was approaching the horizon. The rays, which once dazzled, faintly gleamed through a long tract of murky air: the light lost its brilliancy; and, though it occasionally glowed with a yellow hue, it neither illuminated nor cheered. All seemed approaching to dreary night, when the objects that charmed were no longer to be distinguished; to oblivion, when what we loved should be no longer remembered. Such were the prospects we more than once had, when the 'waxen wings' again recovering their elasticity and firmness, carried back the modern Pindar, if not to his meridian, at least to a respectable elevation; and genial warmth, the splendid light, were again conspicuous. But, alas! the twilight is again coming on: the coruscations occasionally dart, but they threaten a final close. Our poet is already preparing the elegy; our biographer collecting materials for the 'eloge.'

In plainer terms, we have but in one instance, seen our bard sink so low. Whether the terrors in prospect, the weight of the present load, or the barren subject, have contributed to terrify and oppress him, we cannot determine. On the latter, *for the sake of our country readers*, it may be necessary to say a few words. The directors of the former 'abbey commemoration' are, it seems, unpopular: it could not be expected, that they could please every one; and, as is usual, enmity made probably a more violent impression than the acts of friendship. It is

is added also, that the declaration of the final close of the annual commemoration, was made without his majesty's consent; and that these united causes occasioned their having no connection with the oratorio in St. Margaret's church. Such are the misfortunes that our author offers to alleviate by his condoling odes. The Introduction has no inconsiderable merit, and the imitation of the ballad style in Margaret's Lamentation is a happy one.

‘ Now night, the negro, reign’d—“ Past one o’clock,”
The drowsy watchman bawl’d—from murky vaults,
The dough-fac’d spectres crowded forth—the eye,
The sunk, the wearied eye of toil, was clos’d:
Mute, Nature’s busied voice, her brawl and hum;
While horror, creeping on the world of gloom,
Breath’d her dark spirit through the death-like hour—
Now from her silver-fringed east the moon
Peep’d on the vast of shade—up-mounting flow,
In solemn stillness, till her lab’ring orb,
Freed from the caves of darkness, gain’d its sphere,
And mov’d in splendid solitude along.
At this blank hour of awe, amid her fane,
That caught a partial radiance on its walls,
A radiance stealing on the shadowy tombs,
Illuminating death,—the pious maid,
Whose flesh did wonders in its days of bloom,
And bones work’d marvels when she smil’d no more—
The pensive Margaretta stalk’d, and paus’d,
And paus’d and stalk’d, and stalk’d and paus’d agen;
Now nailing to the twilight floor her eye;
Now gazing on the holy windows dim;
Now motionless, and now with hurrying step
Along the hollow-sounding aisle she pass’d;
And leaning lorn at murder’d Raleigh’s tomb,
Of silence wak’d the pale and sacred sleep,
With plaintive accent, thus——

MARGARET’S LAMENTATION.

‘ Why should yon old abbey, should’ring
My poor fane with Gothic pride,
Cracking, sinking, falling, mouldring,
On the back of Marg’ret ride?
What is that huge ruin’s merit?
Only fit for housing rats.
Be her guests, with all my spirit,
Hooting owls, and horrid bats!’

Of the Odes themselves we cannot speak favourably: the little gleams alluded to, break out in two or three instances only, and are faint and ungenial. Mrs. Robinson's Neck Handkerchief and Judge Buller's Wig meet in an old cloathsmen's bag, and the whole pleasantry consists in the idea, of which perhaps more might have been made. The concluding tale is told humorously and well introduced. It was one of the accusations against the musical directors, that they feasted at the St. Alban's Tavern, at the expence of the musical fund; and the allusion is to the meeting of parish-officers, who feast gratis on the birth of a bastard, vulgarly called 'eating a child.' The child, in the present tale, is eaten in this way. At a parish-dinner, the landlord is told, that his maid imputes her swelling shape to him; and, to avoid the scandal, he offers a twenty pound bill as well as the expences of the entertainment. This *may* not be uncommon; but we have not a single overseer of the poor in our corps, and we must leave the fact undecided. Let us select the lines which follow the pointed accusation, and the probable consequences, which the justice sternly points out.

From cheerful smiles, and looks, like Sol so bright,
Poor Larder fell to looks as black as night;

And now his head he scratch'd, importing guilt—
For people who are innocent *indeed*,
Never look down, so black, and scratch the head;

But, tipp'd with confidence, their noses tilt,
Replying with an unembarrass'd front;

Bold to the charge, and fix'd to stand the brunt.—
Truth is a tow'ring dame—divine her air;

In native bloom she walks the world with *state*:
But falsehood is a meretricious fair,
Painted and mean, and shuffling in her gait;

Dares not look up with resolution's mien,
But sneaking hides, and hopes not to be seen;
For ever haunted by a doubt
That all the world will find her out.

Again—there's honesty in *eyes*,
That shrinking shew when tongues tell lies—
With Larder this was verily the case;
Informers were the eyes of Larder's face.'

This picture is spirited and poetical. It is one of the few flowers in the parterre, which deserve particular attention.

A Letter

A Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt, on his Apostacy from the Cause of Parliamentary Reform. To which is subjoined an Appendix, containing Important Documents on that Subject. 8vo. 2s. Symonds. 1792.

THE object of this writer is to show, that Mr. Pitt has acted inconsistently with the principles he had formerly avowed, in opposing the motion lately made in the house of commons for a parliamentary reform. The minister's opposition to that measure having been founded on the turbulent disposition of the times, the author endeavours to prove, that no season can be more suitable for introducing a reform, than when the minds of men are agitated with a variety of political opinions; and that any delay of the proposed expedient may be productive of consequences fatal to the tranquillity of the nation. This argument he enforces upon a supposed probability, that whether the contests in France shall terminate in the restoration of despotism, or the establishment of liberty, a spirit, either of democratical enthusiasm or passive servility, will be diffused over Europe, and Britain become, with other countries, the scene of extraordinary commotions.

'In either alternative, says he, England cannot be exempt from the general spirit. If the phrenzy of democracy be excited by the success of France; if the spirit of abject submission and of triumphant despotism be produced by her failure, in the first event the peace, in the second the liberty of England is endangered. In the first event a furious republicanism, in the second a desperate toryism is likely to pervade the country. Against the prevalence of both extremes there only exists one remedy. It is to invigorate the democratic part of the constitution; it is to render the house of commons so honestly and substantially the representative of the people, that republicans may no longer have topics of invective, nor ministers the means of corruption. If the one spirit prevail, it is necessary to reform the house of commons, that the discontents of the people may be prevented. If the other spirits prevail, the same reform is necessary, that it may be strong enough to resist the encroachments of the crown. In the one case, to prevent our government from being changed into a pure democracy; in the other, to prevent it from being changed into a simple monarchy.'

'The success of the French, the fascinating example of their superb democracy will have no dangerous effects on the minds of contented Englishmen. But what wisdom can avert the effects which must arise from such a model of representation, and such a spirit

spirit as the success of France will produce in Europe, if that spirit is to operate on a dissatisfied people, and that model be perpetually compared with the ruins of a free government. In the alternative then of the success of the French revolution, nothing surely can be so indispensable as a speedy reform in the representation of the people.

* That to infuse a new portion of popular vigor into the house of commons is the only remedy that can be opposed to the triumphant toryism which the subversion of the French republic must produce, is a proposition so evident, as neither to demand proof nor to admit illustration. We have seen the influence of an odious and unpopular court victorious during a long reign, in hostility to the prejudice, and in defiance of the jealousy of the people. What then are we to expect from that increased and increasing influence, conducted perhaps with more dexterity in the cabinet, seconded with equal devotion in the house of commons, and aided by the blind enthusiasm of a people, who are intoxicated by commercial prosperity, and infatuated by all the prejudices of the most frantic toryism? Under such a state of things, what can prevent the formation of an uncontrolled monarchy, and the absorption of every power by a court, from which Englishmen are to learn what remnant of personal security it will vouchsafe to spare, what formality of public freedom it will deign to endure, with what image of the constitution it will indulge and amuse an infatuated rabble.

* Such are the effects which the success or the subversion of French democracy seem calculated to produce on the temper and sentiments of the European nations. This therefore is the moment to repair and to strengthen the English constitution. The fate of France hangs in suspense. Her success is yet too dubious, widely or dangerously to diffuse a spirit of imitation; and the contest between her and the despotic league is still too equal to plunge the people of Europe into the lethargy of servility or despair. This then is that pause of tranquillity, during which we have to prepare against the hurricane with which we are menaced. This therefore is the moment when what was before expedient is become necessary; when the reform is now safe, which in future may be impracticable or dangerous. Reform was before useful to improve; it is now necessary (and perhaps the period of its efficacy is shorter than we may imagine) to preserve the government. Menaced by the predominance of a democratical or a monarchical spirit, give the people their rights, and they will not be provoked to demand more; create an independent house of commons, and the power of the crown will be checked; despotism and tumult will be equally averted; the peace of the country will be preserved; the liberty of the country will be immortalized.

Without

Without attempting to ascertain either the number or proportion of *contented* or *discontented* Englishmen, we hope we may, without deception, anticipate the perseverance of both parties in their attachment to a constitution which has never yet been equalled, in the mildness and salubrity of its political temperature, by any other nation. That some degree of reform would tend to the security of the constitution, seems to be admitted by all parties; and we therefore may expect, that though the accomplishment of the proposal is suspended for the present, it will not be postponed to the Greek calends.

We cannot compliment this author on his candour, nor acquiesce in several of his observations; but we do not hesitate to acknowledge the vigour of his language, the warmth of his colouring, and the plausibility which he gives even to the most objectionable parts of his argument. Whether he be really an HONEST MAN, which all political writers are not, he is, at least, a man of no mean abilities as a writer.

A Candid Enquiry into the Nature of Government, and the Right of Representation. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett. 1792.

IF it were not to retread the steps that we have often trodden, we should be well pleased to follow the Candid Enquirer closely, to give him the praise which is so often his due, and to correct some of the conclusions which his zeal or his enthusiasm has rendered too general, and consequently subjected to a successful reply. His great object is to show, that the causes of the commotions in France do not exist in this kingdom, or are not oppressive on the inferior orders; that distinctions among mankind, and consequently subordination, always did, and must continue to exist; that our present constitution is a good one, and deserves the support of every good subject.

In the first chapter our author attacks the Declaration of the Rights of Man, which he contends its author has infringed, and pursues the subject with an historical account of the establishment of civil government, particularly in Great Britain. In these two last chapters, though, on the whole, correct, there are a few historical errors. Hereditary titles and armorial bearings are connected with the feudal system; and, as they have been joined with pecuniary grants for services, or commutations for debts, the author contends, that taking them away is as unjust as depriving any man of his personal property. The chapter on the equality of the people, and the payment of taxes, contains specimens of the errors alluded to in the beginning of the article, though resting on the authority of Dr. Adam Smith. It is contended, that the poor do not
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pay taxes, because the price of labour rises with the increased value of necessaries. This is not historically correct, and the position is consequently erroneous. That representation is founded in property, our author endeavours to prove; but he fails, as his argument reaches only to the original design; nor is he more correct when he follows M. Calonne, in attempting to show, that the late national assembly was not properly a representation of the people of France. Whatever may have been its original constitution, it appears, that its labours have been at least sanctioned by the concurrence of the nation. From the chapter on property, we shall select some curious observations.

' In the year 966, the value of an acre of land was estimated at one shilling; a hide was worth 100 shillings. Without enquiring very particularly of what number of acres the precise quantity of a hide of land consisted, it will be sufficient for our purpose to take it at the common estimation of 120, which we may readily suppose to be tolerably exact; for if a single acre was worth a shilling, a number of acres taken together, would probably be worth something less. If this account of the value of land is to be depended upon, which is taken from the learned bishop Fleetwood's book, so often mentioned, it will lead us to another very important observation, viz. the population of the kingdom at that period.

' A hide of land was said to be such a quantity as was sufficient for the support of a family. The kingdom of England is said to contain 49,450 square miles; if, therefore, there are 640 acres in a square mile, the number of acres will be 31,648,000, which, divided by 120, will give 263,733 $\frac{1}{2}$ families, and allowing six persons to a family, which is more than a due proportion, the whole number of inhabitants at that time in this kingdom, will be only 1,582,400, supposing, which we know is not the fact, all the land of the kingdom to have been in cultivation, or capable of it.'

' It, perhaps, will not be a bad way to judge of the population of a country, to consider how far the value of land is increased within a given period. I am ignorant what number of families are now maintained on 120 acres of land in England, but from a very ingenious and accurate account of the population of France, published by Monsieur le Chevalier de Pommelles, lieut. col. of the 5th regiment of the Etat Major, in France, in the year 1789, the population of the fourteen southern generalities, which are the parts by far the least populous of that kingdom, and certainly not more so than England in general, the persons maintained on the same number of acres will be about eight or nine times as many as an hide of land was supposed to be capable of supporting.'

OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

FRANCE.

THE anonymous tract, *Vie du Capitaine Thurot, or Life of Captain Thurot*, Paris, 8vo. gives an interesting view of the actions of that great man. He was the son of a postmaster at Nuits, in Burgundy; and had begun to study surgery, by his father's desire, when a singular accident obliged him to abandon that profession, for which he had no inclination. His mother being in great distress after the death of her husband, young Thurot stole some plate from one of his aunts, in order to relieve his parent's necessities: but sensible of his crime, he fled; having only two shirts and twenty shillings in his pockets. At Calais he embarked, as surgeon, on board of a Dunkirk privateer, which was taken by the English in August 1744. Thurot was imprisoned at Dover, whence he escaped by throwing himself into an open boat, in which he contrived to pass to Calais. The marshal de Belleisle, then just released from his captivity in England, was much pleased with this bold escape, desired to see Thurot, and gave him his patronage. At the peace of 1748, he was already celebrated as a successful captain of a privateer: and before the war of 1755 he had acquired a great knowledge of the northern seas, and of the coasts of Scotland and Ireland. He, however, paid for his experience by the confiscation of his vessel and cargo, because he brought prohibited liquors to the British shores; an incident which heightened Thurot's enmity against the English. His actions in the war of 1755 must be well known to our readers. His design of burning Portsmouth was, as the French author suspects, defeated by the ministerial *commis*, some of whom appear to have been in English pay. We shall not describe his last naval combat and death, commemorated by Smollett and other historians. Thurot, like other men of real merit, found his countrymen his greatest enemies; and even his memory was persecuted with mean jealousy. His brother and his daughter were left in indigence, and totally neglected by the French government.

CRIT. REV. N. AR. (V.) July, 1792.

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The national assembly has removed this stain, by a pension of 2000 livres to mademoiselle Thurot; and the present work is printed for her benefit.

M. Barruel's work, *Plan d'Education Nationale considérée sous le rapport des Livres elementaires*, Plan of National Education considered with respect to elementary Books, Paris, 8vo. presents the fruit of long experience. The point of view in which he examines education is entirely new; and though he seems only to investigate it as connected with elementary books, he, nevertheless, treats the question under all its moral and political aspects. We are inclined to believe, with him, that three quarters of the important problem concerning education would be resolved, if we had a course of elementary books, containing a complete body of doctrine, gradually unfolded from the earliest attentions of infancy to the studies proper for the line of life to be embraced by the pupil. M. Barruel even commences with the duties of mothers and nurses, whose passions may have radical effects upon infants. Thence he proceeds to that course of education which extends to six or seven years of age; and assigns for this period the pursuits of reading, knowing musical notes, writing and drawing. Having traced the plan of the elementary books destined for these exercises, he details the proper method of teaching each; and shews that he has deeply considered his object. He next investigates the instruction to be received in small and large schools, and warmly recommends great attention to the gymnastic part. Our limits will not permit us to extend farther on this able work, which presents new and grand ideas concerning education, in a pure and elegant style.

The *Memoire sur l'Objet le plus important de l'Agriculture*, or Memoir on the most important Object of Agriculture, by M. Calignon, a farmer, Dijon, 8vo. pamphlet, recommends the sowing of grain in a different manner from that generally followed in his country, where sometimes more than one-third, sometimes even more than one-half, is sown over and above the quantity required for the space of ground. In the district of Dijon about four measures of corn are sown in every *journal*, the measure being forty-five French pounds, the *journal* 360 perches, of nine and a half feet each. M. Calignon observes, from experience, that a field, far more thinly sown, will yield greatly more than when thus overstocked. The second part of his memoir relates to the advantages of steeping the seed. Agriculture must make some progress in France, when the farmers themselves begin to write on the subject.

At Paris has appeared a translation of an important and curious

rious work, intituled, *Dissertation sur les Variétés Naturelles*, &c. a Dissertation on the Natural Varieties which characterise the Physiognomy of Mankind in different Climates, and at distinct Periods; followed by reflections upon beauty, especially that of the head, with a new way of drawing portraits with the greatest exactness; a posthumous work of Peter Camper; translated from the Dutch by H. J. Jansen; one volume 4to. with eleven plates. The celebrated Le Cat has published a treatise on the colour of the human skin, and M. Buffon has examined the differences in the human form. But the researches of Dr. Camper are far more minute and various; and to painters in particular his work will be found singularly advantageous. To the philosopher it presents additional proofs of an opinion, which daily gains ground, that the great differences in the human race are radical, and not to be considered as the effects of climate. The author shews that the chief generic variety of the human face arises from the situation and proportions of the lower and upper jaws; and this remark he has even traced in quadrupeds and fishes. At the museum of the late Dr. Hunter there is a collection of skulls of monkeys, negroes, and Europeans, from which it appears that the projection of the under-jaw is in proportion to the defect of mental powers. In drawing a line from the forehead to the upper-lip, a strong projection will appear in the face of a negroe, less in that of a Calmuc, still less in the people of the south of Asia; in an European this line is perpendicular; in antique busts it generally projects at the forehead, in a reverse direction to the form of the negroe's countenance. In the present work this observation is extended to most known nations; and the beauty of the human face is explained upon scientific principles. Dr. Camper has added a curious essay on the best form of shoes, in which he points out the defects of the general form, which occasions corns, excrescences under the nails, &c.

M. de Florian, who has acquired considerable reputation by his *Galatea*, a pastoral, his small comedies, and tales in verse, has published a work in two octavo volumes, called *Gonzalve de Cordoue, ou Grenade Reconquise*; *Gonsalvo de Cordova, or Granada Reconquered*. This production is in the manner of his *Numa*, that is, an imitation of the poetical prose of *Telemachus*: a kind of writing not legitimate, nor to be imitated, though excused in the example of *Telemachus*; a work above all rules, animated with extraordinary genius, and full of bold truths, conveyed with all the enchanting powers of eloquence. Yet even these recommendations hardly preserve the fame of *Fenelon's* work; and we may appeal to our reader's observation, when we say that *Telemachus* is

generally in the library, seldom or never on the table. In short, all praise, but few read, that epic piece. We shall not, therefore, dwell on this new production of M. de Florian; but shall content ourselves with observing, that a good abstract of the history of the Moors in Spain is prefixed; yet even this is of no value to a reader possessed of M. Cardonne's very curious history of the Moors in Spain and Africa, taken from Arabian MSS. in the French king's library, Paris, 1765, 3 vols. 12mo. whence most of M. de Florian's materials are derived.

M. Lafont-Pouloti's *Memoir sur les Courses de Chevaux, et de Chars, en France, &c.* Memoir on Horse and Chariot Races in France, considered with regard to public utility, Paris, 8vo. pamphlet, with a plate, must be interesting to the French; whose breed of horses is of little reputation, and who import from England ten or eleven millions of horses every year, as our author asserts; but the number seems to us extremely exaggerated, and should probably be read *thousands*. From the advantages which the institution of races has procured to the English breed, this author argues for similar establishments in France; and we must express some surprise that the chariot race has never been attempted in England. We pretend to little knowledge of the turf, but may be pardoned for hinting our doubts as to the general advantage of races to the breed of horses in a country: to us the utility of these institutions seems almost confined to one useless class of these noble animals. Are our draught or military breed, or our riding-horses, improved by races? We should wish to see the subject ably and scientifically discussed.

M. Brumel has published, in the *Journal de Sciences utiles*, his *Observations sur le Commerce, &c.* Observations on Commerce in general, and that of China in particular: they present a clear and useful abstract concerning the articles of trade to be imported from China.

M. Delporte's *Memoir sur l'Education des Troupeaux*, or Memoir on the Management of Flocks of Sheep, published in the *Feuille du Cultivateur*, contains a particular detail concerning the nurture of these valuable animals, for every month of the year. Some useful hints may be derived from this memoir on a subject which now attracts the particular attention of a society lately established in this country.

A beautiful small edition of M. de Tressan's *Histoire du Petit Jehan de Saintré, &c.* History of Little John de Saintré, and of the Lady des Belles-Cousines, extracted from the old Chronicle or Romance under that title, has appeared at Paris, with plates.

The Code Rural, or Chronological Collection of all the
 6 Decrees

Decrees of the National Assembly which concern the Country, by a Lawyer, Paris, 8vo. deserves commendation.

I T A L Y.

I Piaceri dello Spirito, &c. The Pleasures of the Mind, or an Analysis of the Principles of Taste and Morality, by the Count Giovanni Battista de Corniani, Bassano, 1790, 8vo. This work is highly praised by the Italian journalists; but the extracts which they give appear to us full of trite criticism.

The Abbé Viviani's translation of Dion Cassius, publishing at Rome, 4to. is well executed.

Felici's *Favole Esopiche, &c.* Fables in the Manner of Esop, have a great portion of that elegant simplicity which distinguishes Phædrus.

A curious work has appeared at Florence, being a translation of Sallust by a monk called Barthelemi de S. Concordio, who flourished about the year 1300. The editor is the doctor Gaetano Cioni.

The abbé Comolli has published at Rome a work intituled, *Vita inedita de Raffaele, &c.* or a Life of Raffaele, never before printed, with notes. This is not the first proof which the abbé Comolli has given of his discernment, and his knowledge of the fine arts. His *Bibliographia Architectonica* has met with applause; and in continuing that useful work he has, by way of relief to his studies, published this life of the great painter of the Vatican, written by an anonymous author, and which fortunately fell into his hands. He has added interesting notes, which contribute greatly to illustrate the text. The orthography and style of this life, or rather historical eulogy, of Raphael Urbino, both exactly preserved by the editor, prove that the writer lived about the time of that celebrated artist. The editor's notes at the bottom of the pages chiefly relate to the studies and works of Raphael; to the different manners which distinguish his paintings, the dry style of his first master Pietro Perugino, his second and third manner, after his journey to Florence, and seeing the works of the two Vincis and of Michael Angelo; to the epoch and analysis of his pictures; to his other talents, and his knowledge in architecture, in sculpture, and even in the belles lettres; above all, in poetry. Other remarks concern the mildness of this great painter's manners, the nobleness of his character, the high esteem in which he was held by the popes and illustrious personages of the Roman court; in fine, the honours which he received during his life, and after his death. The learned editor has frequent occasion to refute erroneous assertions of many writers of reputation; as for example, in notes 25 and 27, in which

he proves, contrary to the opinion of Bottari, that Raphael taught friar Barthelemi perspective at Florence; and in note 71, in which he refutes the ridiculous assertions of the marquis d'Argens, who compares Le Sueur to Raphael, and even assigns the superiority to the former. In the text of the anonymous writer, who, according to our editor, is much to be trusted for his exactness, in the chronological part, and in the numerous notes, every thing interesting concerning the life and works of Raphael is collected and discussed.

The chevalier Angiolini's *Lettre, &c. Letters on England, Scotland, and Holland, Florence, 1791, 8vo.* we can only announce.

S P A I N.

Discurso, &c. A Discourse on the Manner of studying literary History, Madrid, 1790, 8vo.

Retratos, &c. Portraits of illustrious Spaniards, with a short Biography. Madrid, at the royal press, 1791, folio.

G E R M A N Y.

Roth's Beyträge, &c. Materials for an Account of the public Law and Literature of Germany, to serve as a Supplement to the Work of Mr. Putter on German Literature, Nuremberg, 1791, 8vo. This collection cannot fail of a good reception from those who have the book of Mr. Putter. It contains the biography of many learned Germans who have written on public law; the review of books on that subject, with many extensive extracts; and even some little treatises.

The *Anhang zu James Bruce Reisen, &c. Supplement to the Travels of James Bruce into Abyssinia*, containing additions and observations, taken from the works of M. Gmelin on natural history, and from several ancient writers, Arabians and others, Leipzig, 1791, has its value. The author's object is to confirm the assertions of Bruce, when analogous to other authentic historians; and to rectify them when in opposition. He has also furnished new illustrations upon many subjects, slightly passed over by Mr. Bruce; and different literati have contributed their assistance to develop some scientific articles, in a manner superior to that of our traveller,

Mr. Woltman has published at Gottingen his *Beyträge zur Hydraulischen Architectur, &c. Materials for hydraulic Architecture*, with plates, vol. i. This volume contains general principles of the art of digging canals, and the manner of preserving the banks. A list is given of the authors who have written on that subject, with an analysis of their works. The author

thor promises a complete theory of canals in the second volume, which will soon appear.

At the same place has been printed a work of some moment, intituled, *Muntz-geld und Bergwerks Geschichte, &c.* The History of the Finances, Coins, and Mines of Russia, from the year 1700 to 1789, 8vo. Mr. Schloeser is the author of this production; and he deserves great credit, not only from his knowledge of history and politics, but from his acquaintance with the Russian language, acquired during a residence of seven years in that empire. The present work was announced more than twenty years ago, when the author, upon his return from his journey to Russia, was desirous of laying before the learned the result of his researches. Different avocations prevented him, but the delay has contributed to the advantage of the work, by furnishing accidental supplies of information. The dryness of the subject is relieved by several occasional illustrations of history, politics, and commerce. Mr. Schloeser's account of the rouble, the most remarkable valuation of money in Russia, we shall abbreviate. Till the commencement of the present century the rouble of Russia was, like our pound sterling, an ideal denomination of money, and merely of accout. The rouble was divided into a hundred kopeyks, or small pieces of silver, round, oval, or angular, without any impression, and intrinsically worth about a penny each. But after the battle of Narva, Dec. 1, 1700, in which Peter I. lost, so to speak, all his army, with the baggage and military chest, extraordinary means became necessary to renew the campaign; and no way was found more expeditious than an operation of finance: the numerary value of the old kopeyks was doubled, and new ones were struck in billon. Soon after (1701), appeared the plotina, or first piece of half a rouble, which was followed by the quarter and tenth of the rouble; and in 1704 was issued, for the first time, the piece of one rouble, or a hundred new kopeyks. This rouble, thus reduced to the value of half the ancient, has nevertheless a great superiority over those struck by the ordinance of 1718, the intrinsic value of which was fixt at 75 per cent. of those issued in 1704. The kopeyks followed at first the same rate; but before the end of the reign of Peter I. they were far beneath it. Pieces of copper were already in circulation, worth a half and a quarter of a kopeyk: in 1723 the emperor caused pieces of five kopeyks to be struck, of the same metal, and ordered all his subjects to exchange their old copper coins for those of the new fabrication. It was found that these pieces of five kopeyks were intrinsically worth but two; to which they were reduced by an ordinance of the empress Elizabeth; and in fine

totally abolished, after having been current for near twenty years, and having occasioned the complete disappearance of the kopeyks in silver and billon.

Mr. de Kalchberg, who has already enriched the German theatre with a play, intituled *Agnès of Habsburg*, has published at Graetz, in 8vo. a tale, intituled, *Die Grafen van Cilli, &c.* or the Counts of Cilli, an adventure of former times. The story is built on a real event which happened in the fifteenth century; and is narrated in dialogue, divided into eleven sections, so as to assume a dramatic appearance.

HOLLAND.

The *Historiesch Schoutoneel, &c.* or Historical Theatre of the Events of the World, Part I. with prints and maps, Harlem, 8vo. proceeds upon so large a scale as to promise all the remarkable modern events and useful discoveries which may happen in the world. Authentic political papers, and lives of illustrious men; topography, portraits, prints, maps, are to contribute to the variety of this periodical work.

Beknopte Historie, &c. an abridged History of the Troubles of the Netherlands, from the period of the armed neutrality in 1780, 2 vols. 8vo. with plates. This work is by an author well informed and intrepid: and he is as moderate as any mal-content can be.

At Utrecht has appeared in 4to. another French translation of Dr. Camper's work on the different features of mankind, above mentioned, by M. d'Isjonval, with ten plates by the celebrated Vinkeles.

Aantekeningen, &c. Annotations made during a Voyage to Turkey and Russia, in the year 1784, with plates, among which is the portrait of the anonymous author, dressed in the Turkish mode, Constantinople, (Amsterdam), year of the hegyra 1204, (1791), 8vo. This singular work contains much curious and interesting information, though the author has peculiar opinions.

Charlotte Belmont, door Charles Milon, &c. Charlotte Belmont, by Charles Milon, Amsterdam, 8vo. This novel has some merit.

AUSTRIAN NETHERLANDS.

Memoires de l'Academie Imperiale et Royale des Sciences, et Belles Lettres, de Bruxelles, tome iv. *Memoirs of the Imperial and Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Brussels*, vol. iv. This volume contains, 1. An account of the life and writings of abbé Needham, who was called to Brussels

fels in the year 1768, to co-operate in founding this academy: the institution, however, did not take place till the year 1775. 2. Some astronomical papers. 3. Life of Francis Richardot, bishop of Arras. 4. Mathematical and mechanical memoirs, by M. de Nieuport. 5. A memoir of M. van Bochaute on the origin and nature of the animal substance; he shews that this substance previously exists in vegetables. 6. On the ringing of bells during a thunder-storm, by abbe Needham. 7. On preventing any change in the magnetic needle by the electricity of the atmosphere. 8. On the tides of air, by abbe Mann, perpetual secretary of the academy. 9. An Abstract of the natural history of the maritime Netherlands, by the same; an interesting paper. 10. On the means of increasing the population, &c. of the Austrian Netherlands, by the same. 11. On the disadvantages of great farms, by the same. 12. Account of a bezoar stone, found in the head of a woman, by M. de Rondeau, &c. From this summary the reader will perceive that the department of belles lettres is entirely barren. We must prefer the French plan of two academies, for such distinct provinces as natural science and the belles lettres. The volumes of Transactions in which these provinces have been joined, as the Petersburg, Göttingen, &c. have always been neglected, because no reader chuses to pay for a book, of which one half is completely useless to him: and we rather mention this, as the Royal Societies of Dublin and Edinburgh have embraced this erroneous plan. If a society chuse to comprehend both departments, it would be for its advantage, and that of the public, to publish their transactions in separate parts, so as to be bound into regular volumes, of natural philosophy and natural history; and of antiquities and belles lettres.

D E N M A R K.

Suhms nye Samlenger, &c. New Collections for the History of Denmark, by Mr. Suhm, Vol. I. sections 1 and 2. Copenhagen, 1791, 4to. This work of the celebrated chamberlain Suhm may be regarded as a continuation of that which appeared in parts, from 1779 to 1784; and which met with deserved attention from the literati of Europe. In these two sections are given, 1. Remarks on the state of the Danish chancery, from the reign of Frederic I. to that of Frederic IV. 2. Extracts of papers on the finances, 1670 to 1674. 3. Ordinances of Christiern II. concerning Jutland, 1513, 1517. 4. Anecdotes concerning the amours of Christiern IV. Luxdorphiana, &c. Memoirs for the Literary History of Denmark,

Denmark, taken from the MSS. of the late privy-counsellor Lurdorff, published by Mr. Nyerup, secretary of the royal library, Copenhagen, 1791, two parts, 8vo. This collection, which also contains many interesting pieces concerning the history of the present reign, is a sufficient proof of the entire freedom of the Danish press.

S W E D E N.

Floderi Opuscula Oratoria et Poetica, Upsal, 1791, 8vo. This work, published by the son of the author, possesses considerable merit.

The Kritik öfver Critikes, &c. Criticism on Criticisms, &c. vols. II. and III. is written with wit, and gives a just idea of Swedish Literature.

P R U S S I A.

Mr. Ditmar's treatise, Ueber dans Vaterland, &c. on the parental Country of the Chaldeans, and Phœnicians, Berlin, 8vo. is curious, though overwhelmed with crude learning. That Abraham was a Chaldean, and that of course the Jews were of Chaldean origin, appears from Scripture. Mr. Ditmar inclines to think that the Chaldeans and ancient Persians were the same people; an opinion dubious in itself, and rendered still more so by the vague reasoning of the author.

Hornuff's Bemerkungen, &c. Remarks made during a Journey through a Part of Poland, and into Saxony, Berlin, 8vo. This author gives an account, in a lively and agreeable style, of Lusatia, Silesia, and some other countries little known.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

R E L I G I O U S, &c.

Christian Benevolence recommended, in a Sermon on Philippians ii. 4. preached at a Meeting of Ministers, April 3, 1792, at Little Baddow, Essex, and published at their Request. By S. Wilmsbush. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1792.

WE find nothing new or interesting in this Sermon, and the publication of it is to be defended only on the ground that Christian benevolence cannot be too often recommended.

Plain and affectionate Addresses to Youth. By R. Gentleman. 12mo. 3s. boards. Robinsons. 1792.

These Addresses, twenty-two in number, were delivered from the

the pulpit at different times by Mr. Gentleman ; and a desire that they might be more extensively useful, induced him to publish them in their present form. They abound with instruction and advice, of the utmost importance to the rising generation ; and we can safely recommend them as a valuable addition to that class of books that are usually distributed in Sunday-schools, &c. From the simplicity of the style, they are well adapted to the capacities of those for whom they are intended.

The Duty of supporting and making a Provision for Families. A Sermon, preached at the Anniversary-Meeting of a Benefit-Society at Whitkirk, on Whit-Monday, 1792. By S. Smallpage, M. A. 4to. 1s. Johnson. 1792.

This discourse is well calculated to produce good effects on the members of benefit-societies, and a general circulation of it would no doubt be of great service to the labouring poor, for whom, if we mistake not, it was principally designed.

Elementa Christiana. The Thirty-nine Articles of the Church of England proved to be agreeable to the Word of God, in their literal and grammatical Sense, in a new, familiar, and catechetical Form. By the Rev. T. Hervey. 12mo. 1s. Richardson. 1791.

The thirty-nine articles are here enforced on the purest Calvinistical principles, that young men intended for the ministry may be enabled to subscribe them with a good conscience. Those, to whom subscription is necessary, may perhaps find this work useful. In any other respect it is scarcely an object of criticism.

Short Addresses to the Children of the Sunday Schools, on particular Texts of Scripture. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1791.

These Addresses are evidently written with the pure intention of doing good. They were occasionally communicated by the benevolent author to the children at the schools in Bath ; and are now made public, at the request of some of the clergy. They consist of sixteen Addresses, suitable to the purpose of the institution.

Prayers for the Use of Families. By B. Kingsbury. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1792.

We have already noticed the Preface to these Prayers, in our Review for May, p. 112. It may now be proper to observe, that they are not a collection from various authors. Their merit or demerit rests entirely with Mr. Kingsbury, and we are of opinion that they will do him no discredit with the rational part of the Christian world. If we have any objection, it is that they are perhaps too general ; and that the author, in compliance with modern taste, has been too careful to reject the phraseology of Scripture, which

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in many respects is extremely beautiful, and from long use, carries a classical authority.

An Essay on the Usefulness and Necessity of Theological Learning, to those who are designed for Holy Orders. By H. Marsh, B. D. 4to. 1s. Marsh. 1792.

This Essay was the substance of a discourse lately delivered before the university of Cambridge. Of the utility of theological learning to persons designed for holy orders, no one can reasonably doubt; yet it forms no part, or a very small one, of our academical learning. Mr. Marsh, very properly, however, considers this study as the only mean of discovering the sense of Scripture, and as the surest method of preventing a spirit of persecution, and of promoting brotherly love and charity. His remarks are candid and liberal, and we entirely agree with him that, amidst the neglect of theological learning, 'the spirit of criticism, for which this country was distinguished beyond all Europe at the end of the last and the beginning of the present century, has evaporated into empty speculation on the unfruitful points of dogmatic theology.'

The Character of a Christian Child. By a Friend to Youth. 12mo. 2d. Deighton. 1792.

This short Character is occasionally a little allegorical, and too much in the style of those pious lullabies used in the last century to hush the babes of grace. It is not, however, so defective as the works to which we have compared it; though too trifling to deserve our commendation.

A Specimen of Prayers to be repeated Daily, every Morning, Noon, and Night. Published by H. Swindell. 12mo. 1s. Ordoyno, Derby. 1792.

Mr. Swindell appears to be a clergyman truly orthodox: his prayers show him to be warm and animated in his devotion; in general, rational and pious in his opinions.

Hymns for Public Worship, on charitable Occasions, and for Charity and Sunday Schools. 12mo. 8d. Robinsons. 1792.

These hymns are rationally pious, though not highly poetical: the last quality is, however, not an essential one. The eulogetic part of divine service, as practised in common congregations often becomes ludicrous, and nothing renders it more so than mean images, or vulgar language. The flights of poetry few could feel, and the more serious would not be pleased with.

P O E T I C A L.

Monody to the Memory of Sir Joshua Reynolds, late President of the Royal Academy, &c. &c. &c. By Mrs. Mary Robinson. 4to. 1s. 6d. Bell. 1792.

This encomium on our late celebrated artist is written with taste and elegance; but it is not free from expressions either hyperbolical or affected, that sometimes cloud its meaning, and often diminish the effect of passages otherwise pathetic or sublime.

‘ When Resignation, bending from the sky,
Steals the fond lingering tear from Virtue’s eye;
When the keen agonies of Grief are flown,
And Reason triumphs on her tranquil throne;
The Muse to Worth and Genius tunes her lyre,
While the chords glisten with celestial fire;
The Muse, in strains untutor’d, and unsought,
Soars on the pinions of enraptur’d thought,
While Memory to her eagle eye pourtrays
The lustrous tablet of a Nation’s praise;
While Fame exulting, spreads her soft’ring wings,
And Truth spontaneous sweeps the bounding strings!
Hark! the full chords in mystic sounds aspire
To swell the chorus of the heavenly choir!
Where, to seraphic harps, ethereal borne,
The Song of Patience bids us cease to mourn;
Contemns the tear that gems each kindred eye,
Calms the quick throb, and checks the frequent sigh;
While, midst the blaze of pure Promethean light,
The meek-eyed cherub bends to mortal sight!
See from her dazzling wing soft essence pour
Heaven’s sacred balm for Mis’ry’s darkest hour;
When Fate inexorable, deals her blow
O’er this rude wilderness of human woe,
’Till Virtue, pointing out the purer mind,
Secures the gem, and leaves the dross behind,
Claims the bright spirit from its native clod,
And bears it, spotless, to the sight of God!’

Thus the poem opens; and was it written entirely in this style, notwithstanding the smoothness of the numbers and some truly poetical images, no reader of pure taste could peruse it with any degree of pleasure; but as he proceeds he will find many passages possessing similar beauties to those contained in the quotation, and its faults avoided. Our principal objection to the poem is, that simplicity is too often sacrificed to artificial refinement.

An Elegiac Ode to the Memory of Sir Joshua Reynolds, late President of the Royal Academy. By the Rev. J. Whitehouse. 4to. 2s. Cadell. 1792.

Mr. Whitehouse's poem is less exceptionable than Mrs. Robinson's. The tribute he pays to the memory of the worthy president reflects no discredit on the living or the dead. The measure and recurrence of rhyme is irregular, but there is no defect in regard to harmony. The ear is seldom or never hurt by any unexpected and unpleasing cadence. The images are spirited and bold, and often display evident marks of original conception. The Ode opens with an address to Genius, and proceeds in the following manner, which will sufficiently shew that the author is not to be classed among the common order of versifiers :

‘ Come, mourn thy son : and lay aside
 Thy azure mantle's flowing pride ;
 The radiant vestments that infold
 Thy graceful form with waving gold ;
 Where hues of brighter lustre glow,
 Than Iris' varied woof can show :
 No more, when meek-eyed evening pours
 Her wild hues o'er a thousand shores,
 Gaze on the painted clouds, that pass
 On the light pinion of the gale ;
 Nor there, where like pellucid glass,
 Ocean's calm breast reflects the gleaming sail :
 Nor at the blush of dawn,
 Along the level lawn,
 Sport with the Oreads in their twilight bowers ;
 Nor by the green hill's side,
 Or where the Naiads glide
 Enamoured stray, nor wreath thy brow with flowers :
 Though clad in Beauty's changeful hue,
 And in Aurora's dewy fragrance bright ;
 Lorraine, to set their charms to view,
 Dipped his gay pencil in the fount of light,
 And with a flying sketch the breathing landscape drew :
 Genius of Painting ! cease to trace
 Thy forms sublime of finished grace ;
 Thy bright resplendent robe forego,
 And veil thee in the garb of woe :
 The dim cloud now be o'er thy shoulders thrown,
 The mists of Night be o'er thy bosom spread ;
 Pour to the passing gale thy plaintive moan,
 And be the tear of bitter sorrow shed !
 Genius of Painting ! now thy loss deplore,
 Since He, thy best beloved—since Reynolds is no more.’

The Idyllia, Epigrams, and Fragments of Theocritus, Bion, and Moschus, with the Elegies of Tyrtæus; translated from the Greek into English Verse. New Edit. By the Rev. R. Polwhele. 2. Vols. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Robinsons. 1792.

We reviewed this performance in our LXI^{III}d volume, p. 355, and considered it as a work of great merit. The defective passages to which we objected are now altered, and some others that required emendation. It of course approaches nearer to perfection, and we warmly recommend it to the classical reader.

A Second Heroic Epistle to Jos. Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. 4to. 1s. Debrett. 1792.

The task of writing heroic epistles, since the days of the renowned Macgregor, is an arduous one, and our author in his first attempt was not in every respect singularly successful. We are happy in being able to add, that he improves: many parts of this Second Part are truly humorous and heroic; and, if we except a very few venial errors, the whole may be pronounced excellent. Many characteristic traits of Dr. Priestley are most happily preserved.

‘What tho’, my Priestley, thy dark creed imparts
No ray of comfort to our throbbing hearts,
Yet, lo! where glimm’ring thro’ thy gloomiest lines,
The glow-worm tail of adulation shines.
More to thy friend than to thy Saviour true,
Christ thou degradest to a low-born Jew;
While high his tow’ring head thy Richard rears,
And, more than man, *all but a God* appears!
Yet tho’ of fame and honours few before
Cambrians or Scotchmen, had so rich a store;
Still were his virtues as his manners, *shy*,
Nor star’d obtrusive in the public eye;
But ever humble, plain, and modest seem’d,
While like a *meeting-scent* they faintly gleam’d,
Where by old Barebones plac’d with frugal care,
Prim, well proportion’d, slender, sleek and fair,
A blended blaze the *farthing candles* form,
Which barely keeps their skins of tallow warm;
And with a steady flame, tho’ small, yet bright,
Spread all around them one meek inch of light.’

The following description of a scene, which in itself would have excited the deepest indignation, may *here* be smiled at.

‘Mark thro’ that door yon villain burst his way,
Then back recoil with looks of wild dismay:
Haggard his eye, and wan his bloodless cheek,
Thrice he essays with quiv’ring lips to speak;

And thrice, as to a muffled clapper clung,
 The sounds scarce murmur on his deaden'd tongue;
 When now his comrades pressing on, behold
 A crowded scene of horrors, yet untold!
 A room appears (if room it can be call'd,
 From which the stoutest hero shrinks appall'd;
 More like some necromantic giant's cave,
 To luckless knights their dungeon and their grave!)
 Where, dire to tell! the long polluted floor,
 With many a drop of blood is sprinkled o'er;
 Where there unburied carcases are seen,
 Some warm, some almost with putrescence green;
 All grim and horrible in death; lo! here
 What scatter'd heaps of shapeless bones appear,
 Whose hue and texture dreadful thoughts inspire;
 Burnt white and spongy in some savage fire!
 Hark! from yon corner foul, in feeble wails,
 A slender voice the startled ear assails;
 There thro' an iron grating may we 'spy
 A crowd of gentle knights in thralldom lie;
 And tho' once seiz'd by the enchanter's snare,
 Captives to him, who man nor mouse will spare,
 There lives in hopeless misery they waste,
 Nor more the sweets of liberty shall taste;
 Yet rave they not for death's last bitter hour,
 Like bold bad Saracens, who scoff its power;
 For nature only to their race imparts
 Fierce Paynim whiskers, not fierce Paynim hearts.'

The description of the Hackney students also excited our smiles; but we dare not transcribe any more. Our readers who approve of the extracts, will undoubtedly refer to the book.

An Heroic Epistle to Thomas Paine. 4to. 1s. Richardson. 1792.

There are characters too detestable to admit of a smile, and the scowl of indignation will, in such instances, supersede the sneer, or the laugh, which the satyrist would wish to excite. This may be, perhaps, the effects of dislike excited by the particular view of Paine's conduct, which, in our situation, we have been obliged to take. Our author possesses a share of humour, and may be, in general, styled entertaining. The following lines are truly characteristic.

'Nor statesman thou alone, thy splendid claim
 'Mid Genius' letter'd sons inrolls thy name:
 Thy style fit emblem of a master's mind,
 Like Nile, with blessings deluges mankind,
 And still in prose or politics, maintains
 A proud exemption from a despot's chains:

When

When scantier language fails, thy mint affords
 A copious coinage of sonorous words,
 In current circulation form'd to spread,
 Stamp'd by thy name, and sanction'd by thy head:
 O greatly form'd o'er vulgar bounds to start,
 And reach perfection unsustain'd by art,
 While Grammar at thy feet imploring lies,
 And wounded Concords weep, and Idiom dies;
 Still dashing Eloquence adorns thy line,
 New forms of shuffling sophistry are thine;
 Wit in exotic garb thy call attends,
 Invective, arm'd with Indian scalp, descends,
 Apt story, galling gibe, and well-plac'd pun,
 Mirth's ever cheering peal, the sort, the fun.'

Let us select also the following awful warning.

' The time may come, when J——n's aid may fail;
 Nor clubs combin'd preserve thee from a jail.
 Haply the dread machine, that patriots fear,
 Terror of wits, may rob thee of an ear,
 Their golden dew's loud crackling eggs may shed;
 And stubborn bricks prove harder than thy head;
 Haply, to mark th' extremity of Fate,
 A Traitor's sentence on thy deeds may wait;
 The slow pac'd sled conduct thee to thy doom,
 The wretch embowell, and the flames consume,
 While perch'd on Temple-Bar (funereal show!)
 Thy head, *still useful*, warns the crouds below.'

D R A M A T I C.

The Princess of Zanzara; a Dramatic Poem. A New Edition.
 8vo. 1s. 6d. Law. 1792.

Of all the poetical advocates for our sable brethren, the author of this drama is one of the least powerful or persuasive.

Cymon, a Dramatic Romance, written originally by D. Garrick, Esq. and first performed as an Opera of Five Acts, by his Majesty's Company from the Theatre in Drury Lane, at the King's Theatre in the Haymarket, Dec. 31, 1791; with additional Airs, Choruses, &c. &c. 8vo. 1s. Becket. 1792.

This little piece was originally written by David Garrick, esq. and, owing in a great measure to the music which accompanies it, has, for many years, been repeated on the theatre with satisfaction to the audience. Having been lately revived, with very splendid decorations, it is now republished.

C. R. N. AR. (V.) July, 1792.

B B

The

The Theatre, by Sir Richard Steele; to which are added, the Anti-Theatre; the Character of Sir John Edgar, &c. &c. Illustrated with Literary and Historical Anecdotes, by J. Nichols. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Robinsons. 1791.

These two volumes are collected from the public prints in the reign of George the First, and contain sir Richard Steele's disputes with the duke of Newcastle, then lord chamberlain, and others, respecting the theatre of Drury-lane, of which sir Richard was patentee. The work is rendered more interesting by the addition of literary and historical anecdotes.

Modern Comedy; or, It is all a Farce, a Dramatic Afterpiece. In three Acts. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1792.

We must remember the Rehearal, Pasquin, and the Critic; and must consequently feel our present author's inferiority. A tame imitation of spirited originals, an insipid attempt to follow what is highly humorous and pointed, would excite our pity, if some unjustifiable personal satire did not raise our indignation.

L A W.

Trial between Henry Martin, Esq. of the County of Galway, Ireland; and J. Petrie, Esq. of the County of Essex, for Crim. Con. with the Plaintiff's Wife. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1791.

The damages found for the plaintiff, in this cause, was ten thousand pounds.

Trial between James Duberley, Esq. Plaintiff, and Major-General Gunning, Defendant, for Criminal Conversation with the Wife of the Plaintiff. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Ridgway. 1792.

In this trial, the jury awarded to the plaintiff, five thousand pounds damages. An application has since been made for a new trial, on the ground of excessive damages; but it was refused by the judges of the King's Bench.

A Letter from an Attorney at Law, concerning imprudent Testamentary Dispositions of Property. 8vo. 6d. Bourne. 1791.

This Letter relates to imprudent testamentary dispositions of property; but is too confined in its object to prove interesting to the public.

Brief Deductions from first Principles applying to the Matter of Libel: being an Appendix to a second Letter to the Right Hon. Charles James Fox on that Subject. By J. Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Whieldon and Butterworth. 1792.

Mr. Bowles, with the true spirit of a hero, turns not his back on the enemy. He is conquered, but not convinced. He may,

with Cato, adopt the *victra causa*, leaving the *victrix* to the gods ; in other words, the two houses of parliament.

The Duty of the Overseers of the Poor. To be delivered to them at their Appointment, being first signed and sealed by the Justices, in their Petty Sessions, appointed to be held in Easter Week, or within one Month after Easter, in every District ; on a similar Plan with the Duty of Constables. 8vo. 1s. Faulder. 1792.

The duty of the overseer is described in plain, familiar, language, and we think every overseer ought to be provided with these judicious instructions.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

Moyen d'Assurer les Fruits de l'Education. Avec un Essai de l'Application de ce Moyen à l'Etude de la Langue Française. Par M. Regny.—On the Means of securing to Youth the Advantages of their early Education. With a Specimen of the Method, as applicable to the French Language. By Mr. Regny. 8vo. 1s. Elmsley. 1792.

The observation that young men, after leaving school, are not only liable soon to forget what they had learned, but, from the want of proper employment of their minds, exposed to dissipation, suggested to M. Regny the utility which would result from engaging them some time longer in the prosecution of liberal knowledge. For this purpose he formed a plan of delivering lectures on several of the sciences, and likewise particularly on the French language. He made his intention known to the public, both by advertisements and hand-bills, in which he fixed a time for giving three lectures successively, and offered tickets of admittance *gratis* to all those who would favour him with their names and address, that they might be enabled to judge of his capacity for discharging the office of an instructor. Those appointed meetings, however, were badly attended ; and M. Regny suspects, what is highly probable, that by those who did attend he was not rightly understood. He has therefore thought proper to publish the discourse which he gave on the grammatical knowledge of the French language. It is sufficient for us to observe, that M. Regny appears to be perfectly well qualified for the department in which he offers his service to the public ; and we think it would contribute not a little to the advantage and ornament of many young gentlemen, to avail themselves of so favourable an opportunity of acquiring an accurate acquaintance with the French tongue ; towards which, in respect both of theory and practice, M. Regny's plan is, in our opinion, happily calculated.—In this pamphlet, one page is printed in French, and a translation, in English, on that opposite,

Considerations on the Proclamation of the Governors of the Austrian Netherlands against France, published at Brussels, the 19th of May, 1792. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hookham and Carpenter. 1792.

The author of these Considerations observes, that three principal objects offer themselves to notice in the proclamation of the governors of the Netherlands. The latter, he says, endeavours to prove to the Brabantines, 1st, That it is neither the nation at large, nor the king, that have kindled the present war, but a faction, which has for these three years past convulsed France. 2dly, That the Austrian government has done every thing to prevent the war, and nothing to provoke it; and that it is the French who have, for a year past, sought every pretext of aggression. 3dly, That the nations of Europe, being invited by France to re-assume the rights which she has recovered of being free and sovereign, ought to view with dread and horror, the state of anarchy, the crimes and misery, to which she has become the prey in the pursuit of an imaginary liberty.

The author of the Considerations, who appears to be a zealous friend to the new constitution of France, endeavours to refute these several allegations, contained in the Austrian proclamation. Not content, however, with asserting the interests of France in a verbal dispute, concerning the priority of aggression, he farther endeavours to excite the British nation, if not to an actual defence of that country, at least to a determined interposition, by negotiation, in its cause.

‘ Who knows, says he, but a word from Great Britain would defeat the impious plots of this *kingly junto*, and force the voice of justice to be heard. And shall we then show ourselves unworthy of the title of freemen, and of friends of liberty. Shall we apostatise our principles, and shut our eyes against our true and invariable interest? No. Englishmen will not allow themselves to be imposed upon by the prejudices and prepossessions, which certain persons give themselves such pains to propagate and confirm. They will adhere to their ancient, their venerable love for freedom; and will proclaim to the whole world their natural abhorrence of this wicked and unjust war against the liberties of France. True to their principles, they will hold in horror the kingly conspiracy at Pilnitz; and consider the cause of France, as the cause of all mankind.’

Until we had reached the part above extracted, which forms the conclusion of the pamphlet, we had naturally imagined the author to be a native of France. Our suspicion is not entirely removed by the oblique insinuation to the contrary: but whatever be the country of the author, he seems to presume too much upon national sympathy, when he intimates any expectation that Great Britain

Britain will, from such a motive, interfere in the war on the continent. If the French were unanimous in the cause of freedom, they might be sufficiently able, without foreign aid, to maintain their own independence; but if not unanimous, it would be more than officious; it would be culpable, in Great Britain to take any part in the settlement of her constitution.

Clerical Reform; or, England's Salvation; shewing its Necessity by a comparative State of the Landed Property, in respect to Taxes, Mortgages, Funds, Tithes, &c. By J. Williams, Esq. 4to. 2s. Printed for the Author. 1792.

If we are not mistaken, Mr. Williams has formerly appeared in the character of a political projector. We do not, however, recollect on what occasion. Whether he has borrowed the idea of the clerical reform from the conduct of the national assembly in France, we know not, but the plan he suggests has a great resemblance to that model; and, with respect to the reduction of church-livings, likewise nearly coincides with that of the bishop of Landaff. He farther proposes the total abolition of tithes, in lieu of which the ecclesiastical stipends should be paid out of the public treasury; and that all the mortmain-lands should be sold for the public benefit. For the great advantages which would result to the nation from this important reform, we refer our readers to the account displayed by the author.

Letters between the Hon. and Right Rev. Father in God, Shute, by Divine Providence, Lord Bishop of Durham, Count of the County Palatine, Earl of Sadberge, Baron Evenwood, &c. &c. and Percival Stockdale. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1792.

The sole occasion of this pompous pamphlet is, that Mr. Stockdale, having written a poem containing much *disinterested* praise of the bishop of Durham, and sent him a volume of sermons, thought he had established a sufficient claim on a living in his lordship's patronage; which being refused him—(for it, indeed, must be an excellent poem, and a valuable set of sermons, that can be worth a good living)—the irritated bard changed his artillery, and points against the bishop, in plain prose, the whole thunder of his indignation. This simple affair, which might have been amply told in nine pages, is extended, by means of a very long and *soi-disant* preface, to nearly ninety; in which we are incessantly reminded of the author's extraordinary genius, his acuteness and delicacy of feeling, his intimacy with Garrick, Johnson, and Burke, and of his antipathy to priests.—Whoever delights in reading the indiscriminate abuse of a particular class of men, proceeding from one of their own order, and cavalier expostulations with a head of the church from one of its minor members, in the spirit of the new *Rights of Man*, may here find his malignant

malignant gratification. But it would have redounded infinitely more to Mr. Stockdale's honour, if he had committed this publication to the press at once, *without consulting the bishop*, and telling him that it was yet in his power to 'stop its progress and completion.' This threat the bishop wisely disregarded: for, after all, it only appears that his lordship exercised his own judgment, as to the disposal of the living in question; and that Mr. Stockdale has added another instance to the *genus irritabile vatum*.

The British Plutarch; containing the Lives of the most eminent Statesmen, Patriots, Divines, Warriors, Philosophers, Poets, and Artists of Great Britain and Ireland, from the Accession of Henry VIII. to the present Time. Third Edit. 8 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 4s. bound. Dilly. 1791.

This work contains the lives of the most eminent statesmen, patriots, divines, warriors, philosophers, poets, and artists, of Great Britain and Ireland, from the accession of Henry VIII. to the present time. The edition before us is rendered free from many errors which had been in the two former, and is likewise enriched with a number of additional lives.

London; or, an Abridgment of the celebrated Mr. Pennant's Description of the British Capital, and its Environs. By Mr. J. Wallis. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Bentley. 1791.

The making of abridgments during the lifetime of the original author, may be considered, in general, as a kind of petty larceny in the province of literature; but Mr. Wallis, by prefixing his name to this production, scruples not to avow the misdemeanour.

The History, Debates, and Proceedings of both Houses of Parliament of Great Britain, from 1743 to 1774. 7 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 9s. boards. Debrett. 1792.

These seven volumes make a proper supplement to Chandler's Debates, and appear to be faithfully executed from the materials which have been preserved of the parliamentary proceedings during the thirty years specified.

An Essay on the Contour of the Coast of Norfolk; but more particularly as it relates to the Marum-Banks, and Sea-Breaches, so loudly and so justly complained of. Read to the 'Society for the Participation of useful Knowledge,' Oct. 20, 1789, in Norwich. By M. J. Armstrong, Geographer and Land-Surveyor. 4to. 1s. Printed at Norwich. 1792.

Mr. Armstrong's chief object, in this Essay, is to describe the Marum-banks and sea-breaches of the eastern coast of Norfolk.

Letters

Letters of the Countess du Barré; with those of the Princes, Noblemen, Ministers of State, and others, who corresponded with her. Translated from the French. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Symonds. 1791.

We suspect these Letters to be the same with what were published under a similar title about twelve years ago.

Characters and Anecdotes collected in the Reigns of William Rufus, Charles the Second, and King George the Third. By the celebrated Wandering Jew of Jerusalem. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1792.

This pamphlet presents some good thoughts, amid a quantity of trite rubbish. What the author means by his characters being collected in various reigns we cannot divine, for there is no discrimination of times :

‘ But true, no-meaning puzzles more than wit.’

The divisions of this tract are, On Friendship ; on the Proud and Insolent ; the Miser ; the Christian Philosopher ; the Mail Coaches ; the Insignificant Puppy ; Servants ; the Player ; Childhood ; the Modern Man ; the Drunkard ; a Cockney ; the Atheist ; a Surgeon ; the Attorney, &c. &c.

As a specimen, we shall select the Tavern.

“ Coming, coming, Sir—coming, Sir ! ”—A Tavern is a place of universal resort, where Bloods and Bucks meet to be jolly, and to get drunk.

‘ If the *nose* of the master is at the *door*, *that* alone is a sign sufficient—to supply the place of which, see the Bedford Arms or the Shakspeare !

‘ The rooms smell like the guests (who have drank more than sufficient, as the reckoning can testify) ; they have been washed well the over-night, and yet offend your nose the next morning ; not always furnished with beds to be defiled, but mere necessary implements ; such as chairs, tables, and *looking-glasses*. Here you become witness to more noise than bottles, more jests than noise, and more politics than either : where mankind meet to be merry ; and to create, indeed, more noise than mirth : the music above stairs is answered with the noise of the bar-bell below ; the repeated call of—Waiter ! waiter ! and the repeated answer of—“ Coming, coming, sir ! with score—another bottle in the Lion ! ” add much to the melody of the concert.

‘ The waiters are frequently the civilest people in the house ; and however rudely they are treated, none have cause to boast more justly than they have, of their *high calling*. A tavern is the real theatre of life ; where parts are not merely acted, but performed according to nature : the scene too changing perpetually,

. from

from the bottom of the cellar to the bar, and from thence to every other part of the house.

' A melancholy man will here find room for reflection: heads, as brittle as glass, often broken, and again made whole; a scene of quarrelling, and cementing of friendship. The consumption of midnight: the torrid zone that scorches the face, and tobacco, the gunpowder that blows it up; but water is always at hand to quench the flames. You may term it a house of sin, but not the house of darkness, for the lights are rarely or never out—like some of those near the north pole, where it is as clear at midnight as at noon-day. Sometimes, after a long sitting, it becomes like the streets, in many places, in a heavy shower, where the spouts are flashing from above, while the conduits are running from below; while the looking-glasses, like swelling rivers, overflow their banks. In short, to give you, landlord like, the total reckoning in a few words—it is recreation to the alert, business to the idle, a sanctuary to the melancholy, entertainment to the lawyer, diversion to the scholar, and a banquet to the wise citizen:—where we will leave them to their supreme enjoyment of turtle and venison; and to the toasting of—Sir Watkin for ever! — N^o. 45, Wilkes and Liberty!'

Essays, Literary and Historical. By E. Sayer, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Ridgway. 1791.

The first twenty of these Essays were originally published in the morning paper called the Diary. They relate to literary and political subjects, and show the author to be a man of reflection. In the close of the pamphlet, Mr. Sayer gives a statement of his services, as counsel on the part of lord Hood, before an election-committee, in Westminster; and for which, it appears, he has not met with due recompense.

An Abridgment of the History of France: in the Manner of Goldsmith's Abridgment of the History of England, and of the Abridgment of the History of Scotland. For the Use of Schools. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Kearsley. 1791.

This duodecimo volume is professedly intended for the use of schools. Scarcely any other purpose than that of marking the dates of events, can be answered by such short compendiums; and in this view, perhaps, chronological tables might at least be equally useful.

